

THE
MONTHLY RECORDER,

FOR MAY, 1813.

FOR THE RECORDER.
BIOGRAPHICAL MEMOIR
OF
OLIVER ELLSWORTH, L.L.D.

CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES, &c.

Those master-spirits who, by the operations of original genius, give to their age and nation their peculiar form and character, may be arranged in three great classes, the characteristic features of which are sometimes a little blended in an individual, but in the main are strikingly distinguished from each other. First of these, may be ranked those who are gifted with that facility of combining lofty and pleasing images, and that creative fancy, which form the germ and essence of poetical genius, and which, evolved in different degrees by exercise and cultivation, are the sources of all that adorns and gladdens life. Distinct from these may be placed the men of theory and abstraction, the discoverers and the teachers of high truth and general principles; and lastly, those born for the management of affairs, and formed by nature for the bustle and the contests of active life; who, without waiting for the gradual formation of particular habit by the processes of education or of practice, assimilate themselves at once to their station and discharge whatever duties may be imposed upon them with as much ability as if all their lives had been spent in the detail of that single employment. This last appears to have been the most usual form in which American genius has hitherto displayed itself. Fisher Ames, indeed, seems to have possessed a genius compounded of the first and second order; and Alexander Hamilton was equally distinguished for the peculiar qualities of the second and the third classes. The subject of the present biographical sketch, with no one quality in common with the poet, and partaking little of the character of the speculative philosopher, may be placed, if not at the head,

certainly among the very first of the men formed for the discharge of great duties in the most arduous and dissimilar scenes of active life.

OLIVER ELLSWORTH was born at Windsor, a village of Connecticut, in April, 1745, of respectable, although not very distinguished or wealthy, parents. His youth was passed alternately in agricultural labours and in the elementary studies of a liberal education. At the age of seventeen he entered Yale College, but after some residence there, removed to Princeton, where he completed his academic course and received the degree of A. B. in 1766. Within a few years after his leaving college he was admitted to the bar in Connecticut and commenced the practice of his profession in the county of Hartford. The jurisprudence of Connecticut, after a long period of darkness and uncertainty, had, a very short time before Mr. Ellsworth's entrance upon professional life, assumed a regular form: the common law was now fully received, and the decisions of those great English judges, who had introduced light and order into the scholastic refinements and nice technical distinctions of the ancient law, and adapted it to the wants of a more enlightened age, and a commercial people, were now familiarly cited at the bar. With this æra of legal light Mr. Ellsworth commenced his professional career. He had not laid a very deep foundation either of general or of professional learning, but the native vigour of his mind supplied every deficiency; the rapidity of his conception made up for the want of previous knowledge; the diligent study of the cases which arose in actual business, stored his mind with principles; whatever was thus acquired became rooted in his memory, and thus, as he grew eminent, he became learned. He very soon rose into high reputation and lucrative practice, and before he had been long at the bar received the appointment of *State Attorney* for the district of Hartford, an office at that time of very considerable emolument. This he continued to hold during the greater part of the revolutionary war. After having for several sessions represented the town in which he resided in the general assembly of the state, and passed with much reputation through this probation, which, according to unvarying usage, the public men of Connecticut must always undergo before they are permitted to rise to higher office, he was, in 1777, that eventful epoch in our annals, chosen a delegate to the congress of the United States, in which body he continued to hold a seat for nearly three years. Here he was distinguished, as well for his unyielding firmness and political courage, as for his powers in debate and unwearied attention to public business. During the greater part of the time, he was a member of the Marine Committee, which was a sort of board of admiralty, and had the superintendence of the naval affairs of the United States; and also of

important during war in an independent
country

the Committee of Appeals, which, until the erection of a court for that purpose in 1780, received and reported to congress on all appeals made from the admiralty courts established in the different states. In 1780 he was elected by his native state a member of their council, a body corresponding with the senate or upper house of the other state constitutions; this place he held, being annually re-elected, until 1784, when he was appointed a judge of the *Superior Court*. In 1787, he was chosen by the legislature a delegate to the convention, which was soon after held at Philadelphia, for the purpose of forming a more efficient government for the confederation. As the convention sat with closed doors, it is not exactly known what were Judge Ellsworth's particular plans of government, or what part he bore in forming the constitution as it now stands; it is, however, well understood that he was a very active and influential member of that illustrious body, and that he was in general desirous of retaining the most simple and unmingled republicanism at all consistent with the situation and probable destinies of the country.

Having been called away by other duties before the adjournment of the convention, his name is not among those signed to the constitution; but that instrument, when finally agreed upon, received his warmest approbation and support.

Almost immediately upon his return to Connecticut he was chosen by the people a member of the state convention, called to consider on the adoption of the constitution submitted by the general convention; and in this body, composed of most of the distinguished men of Connecticut, he defended and explained with great ability those provisions of the federal constitution which were most violently opposed, and contributed very much to procuring its adoption by that state. Two of these speeches, one delivered on the opening of the convention, in which he enforces the general advantages of union, and a second in defence of the article vesting congress with the power of imposing taxes and duties, are preserved in the third volume of the "American Museum."

As soon as the constitution had been ratified by the requisite number of states, Judge Ellsworth was elected a senator in the first congress under the new confederation, which met at New-York in 1789. In this station he contributed very largely towards planning and building up all those civil institutions and schemes of national policy which gradually arose under the Washington administration. Among other acts of great public importance, the bill for organizing the judiciary establishment of the United States was drawn up by him, in concert with Dr. Johnson, his colleague in the senate, from the state of Connecticut. This was a work of much labour and of some address, as

it was necessary to form a system which might answer the great ends of public justice, and preserve a general uniformity in the mode of its administration, without encroaching upon the state jurisdictions, or overturning their established forms of practice. No part of the new form of government had excited more local jealousies or encountered more violent prejudices than the judiciary, and it was deemed expedient, in order to procure its more favourable reception, to yield up some points of convenience and of secondary importance. It has been observed that this act bears many marks of its origin, and retains several features of the peculiar practice of Connecticut.

When the senate was classed by lot, Mr. Ellsworth fell into that class whose term of service was limited to two years, upon the expiration of which he was re-elected for the full term of six years, and continued to hold his seat until 1796. This situation contributed much to evolve the latent powers of his vigorous mind, which was roused and elevated by the collision of powerful intellects and the ardent investigation of great questions. Every important point which came under discussion in the senate was studied by him with the most laborious application, and revolved in his mind over and over with the most unremitted and ardent meditation. When he had once made up his opinion, which was not until after mature and impartial examination, he was immoveably firm in his purpose, and perhaps sometimes too uncompromising and ardent in the support of it. His leading principles of policy were to give dignity and stability to government, by the prompt and vigorous execution of the laws, and to keep the body politic in a firm and healthy tone, by the most rigid economy of expenditure and a republican simplicity in all its public measures and institutions.

When the French revolution had given a new aspect to the affairs of this country, in common with those of the whole civilized world, and arrayed the American people into those parties, which, though their ground of difference is changed, still divide the nation, Mr. Ellsworth, as well as the great majority of the state which he represented, adhered to the administration, and he supported with great zeal all the public measures of President Washington.

On the 4th of March, 1796, in consequence of the resignation of Chief Justice Jay, he received the appointment of Chief Justice of the United States. This was an unlooked-for elevation, and he at first doubted his own ability to discharge this high trust. In his practice in Connecticut, at that time almost wholly an agricultural state, he had had little opportunity to become familiar with the principles of commercial law; and his acquaintance with foreign and national law was almost wholly confined to those subjects which had fallen un-

der his investigation in the discharge of his senatorial duties. Immediately upon his appointment he commenced a very extensive course of legal studies upon those points in which he felt himself deficient, which he pursued with unremitted ardour in every interval of public employment. Perhaps he had underrated his previous acquirements, for neither the public nor the bar ever remarked any *deficiency* in legal learning; nor did he display in any of his judicial opinions that unwieldy shew of reading, in which those to whom learning is not yet familiar, are so apt to indulge. Independent of that general ability and business-cast of character, which fitted him for almost any station in which he might be placed, he was peculiarly well suited for this office. He rose rapidly in the public opinion, and in the estimation of the bar. Every duty of this high office was discharged, not only with ability, but with patience, diligence, and strict integrity; and in a period of violent party rancour the purity and impartiality of his judicial character was untarnished even by suspicion.

It is a circumstance worthy of remark that, in an opinion delivered by the chief justice on an eastern circuit, he recognised and adopted, for the first time in any court of the United States, the English common law doctrine with regard to allegiance and expatriation.

For nearly four years the chief justice presided in the highest court of law in the United States with great dignity and reputation, until towards the close of the year 1799, when, after a short naval war between France and the United States, some overtures for a peace were made by the French government to President Adams, and it was determined to send out a mission of three envoys plenipotentiary to adjust the existing differences. To this important trust the chief justice was appointed, in company with Governour Davie of North Carolina, and the Hon. William Vans Murray, then minister of the United States at the Hague. Judge Ellsworth had already begun to experience some of the infirmities of approaching age; and the fatigues and sickness of an unusually tempestuous winter's voyage now gave an additional shock to his constitution, and fixed upon him diseases from which he never recovered. The envoys found the government in the hands of the first consul, who, as he had not entered into the views of his predecessors, the executive directory, nor yet formed his great plan of commercial warfare against Great Britain, readily entered into negotiations, which terminated in the adjustment of differences.

After having, in conjunction with his fellow-envoys, formed a treaty of peace and commercial arrangements with France, he crossed over to England, partly for the gratification of a liberal curiosity, but chiefly for the purpose of trying the efficacy of the mineral waters

in those nephritic complaints with which he was afflicted. The waters afforded him little permanent relief; but he was gratified by receiving the most marked attentions from several of the leading public men of Great Britain, and in particular from many of the most eminent English judges and lawyers.

During his residence in England, finding that his constitution was radically impaired, and too feeble to again support the fatigues of extensive circuits, and the other labours of his judicial duties, he transmitted to President Adams a resignation of his office of chief justice. In the following year he returned to America, and retired to his family residence in his native village of Windsor. He had, while at the bar, enjoyed a very lucrative practice; the profits of his profession had always been regularly and judiciously invested, and the fortune thus acquired had been augmented by the economy and simplicity of his habits of life, to a degree of wealth rarely found among the general mediocrity of fortunes prevailing in Connecticut. Thus independent in his circumstances, and satisfied with public honours, it was his intention to retire altogether from public life. The lingering disease, and untimely death, of a favourite son, which took place about this time, added to his own infirmities, contributed to depress his spirits, as much as a mind so firm and vigorous could be depressed by external circumstances. Yet when the *freemen* of Connecticut, desirous of testifying their respect for his character and services, taking the opportunity of the first vacancy which occurred, re-elected him, after an interval of nearly twenty years, a member of their state council, he did not refuse the call of public duty, and he continued in this body for several years, faithfully attending to the public business, in spite of the interruptions of disease and the pressure of domestic affliction.

His seat in the council made him, *ex officio*, a member of the Board of Fellows of Yale College, and he entered very zealously into all the concerns and interests of that valuable institution.

His public duties were the more laborious, because, during the time in which he held a seat in the council, that body exercised the double powers of a constituent branch of the legislature, and of the final court of appeals from all inferiour state jurisdictions. This union of offices, which had been introduced into several of our provincial and state governments, in imitation of the British House of Lords, has, after some trial in this great school of experimental politics, been laid aside in every state except that of New-York.

The inconveniencies, real or imaginary, incident to the formation of such a court of errors, as well as to that of the superior court, as it was then established in Connecticut, induced the legislature, in their spring session in 1807, to new model their judiciary. They organised

circuit courts, approximating more nearly than had yet been done in that state to the English *Nisi Prius* system, which courts, when united, formed a court of appeals of the last resort. When this arrangement was completed, desirous to give greater dignity to their new system, they appointed Judge Ellsworth Chief Justice of the state. He was not deterred by any considerations of false pride, arising from his having filled the highest judicial station in the union, from accepting this appointment of a more limited, although independent, jurisdiction, but at first consented to accept the office; but before the close of the session in which this appointment had been made, feeling strong symptoms of a more violent recurrence of his disease, he became convinced of his inability to discharge its duties, and declined the appointment.

After a short and flattering interval of health, he again relapsed, and died at his house in Windsor, November 26, 1807, in the sixty-third year of his age.

He married early in life a lady of respectable family and connexions in Connecticut, by whom he had three sons and as many daughters. During the whole of his public life the residence of his family was at Windsor, where he lived in a very plain and unostentatious style. His habits of life were regular and frugal, and his manners were marked with a grave and dignified simplicity, altogether in unison with his general character. His conduct, both in public and private affairs, was always under the steady control of well-settled principle, very rarely the result of warm or impetuous feeling. Through the whole course of an active life, and a long series of public honours, he preserved an unspotted reputation, and enjoyed in an eminent degree the esteem and confidence of his fellow-citizens.

Oliver Ellsworth was, without doubt, one of the ablest men whom New-England has ever produced. As an advocate and a parliamentary speaker, his characteristic features were strength and originality of thought. In argument and debate he was always powerful and impressive, frequently animated and ardent; yet this ardour was rather the earnest vehemence of strong reason, than the glow of imagination or the burst of feeling. With few of the external graces of the orator, with little ornament or polish of language, not very copious, not very flowing, he had yet, in an uncommon degree, the power of commanding attention and of enforcing conviction. He satisfied or subdued the reason, with little endeavour either to excite the feelings or to please the fancy.

Upon the bench, his patience and diligent attention, united to his quickness of apprehension and the clearness of his perceptions, contributed to great dispatch of business and soundness of decisions. His

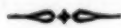
Rest of Bench
 opinions at bar, as they are preserved in the reports, are concise and perspicuous.† Seizing the leading points in the case, and throwing aside all adventitious circumstances, he established the principle clearly and definitely, without any ostentatious parade of legal research, or far-sought ingenuity of argument.

It is worthy of special observation, that in all his judicial opinions he appears to have cultivated a simple conciseness of style, altogether at variance with that wordy diffusion which has now become the prevailing fault of American eloquence.

Considered either as a lawyer or as a scholar, he seems to have been rather practically well-informed than profoundly or extensively learned; and although by no means deficient in any branch of that knowledge which lies in *the beaten track of regular study*,* he had made little proficiency in the rarer elegances of literature, or the more curious parts of learning. Throughout life he was rather a thinking than a reading man—his mind was always actively employed, but the subjects of his meditation were more generally those which arose from the occurrences of actual life, than such as were furnished by the speculations of the learned. He was formed by nature more for the discharge of active duties than for contemplative study or abstract science.

That facility and quickness of associations by which, from a few faint and distant hints, a whole chain of argument is at once evolved in the mind, was a faculty which his intellectual character exhibited in very high perfection. Nor was this power such as is often formed in ordinary minds by long habits of study or of business, and confined to certain classes of ideas, but the versatility, as well as the vigour of his talents, was displayed in the uniform ability which he evinced in numerous and very dissimilar public employments. His name is strongly associated with the history of our liberties and of our most valuable institutions, and has already become venerable and dear to his country.

V.



THE AMERICAN IN EUROPE.

LETTER II.

London, September 1, 1805.

DEAR BROTHER,

One of the remarkable differences in the state of manners and opinions between my countrymen and the people of this, is seen in the appearance of the Jews, the rank they hold in society, and the

* Johnson.

treatment they experience from the vulgar. In America, where a descendant of Abraham and observer of the law of Moses, is not distinguished from his fellow-citizens by any privation of privileges—where all men who bow the head, or lift the heart, to the great first cause, whether under the name of “Jehovah, Jove, or Lord,” mingle together as the equally protected children of their beneficent parent—a Jew is not known from a Mahometan or Christian, and in the social intercourse of society the circumstance of difference in belief is not thought of. But here, where the man who does not believe as the rulers of the land believe is only tolerated, (and that toleration heretofore boasted of as a distinguishing mark from other nations) the descendants of this ancient and venerable people, whose religion is the spring and source of our own, are treated with contumely and considered by the vulgar as outcasts of God and man.

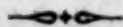
“By the vulgar,” you repeat: yes; but the vulgar is the mass of every nation, and it is on the mass that every individual depends for his enjoyments and his security. But the opinions and manners of the vulgar depend again upon the maxims of the government and the just equality of the laws; the vulgar cannot be expected to treat as a brother the individual whom the laws and the dignitaries of the religious establishment treat as unworthy of reposing by the side of his fellow men in the place where all distinction seems to be banished by the law of nature, the burying place of the dead. Yet I read in my paper this morning, that “a Jew pauper, dying in Aldgate workhouse, was interred in the burial ground of the parish; but the circumstance being communicated to the bishop of London, his lordship ordered the corpse to be dug up and removed to the Jews’ cemetery at Mile-End!” What a crowd of reflections does such a fact cause to rush upon the mind of an American! It does not require any effort to connect the order of the bishop of London with the following scene, which I witnessed in one of my solitary rambles.

Crossing Tower-Hill, on my return from sauntering in the ancient castle of the Tower of London, a place of infinite amusement to me, I saw a crowd, and, as usual, got into it. A rabble of blackguard boys, and more blackguard men, were mocking, insulting, and offering violence to an old man, whose pitiable feebleness and bald head would have softened the heart of a barbarian in the moment of pillage, and, to my inquiries of “Why is it? what has he done?” the answer was, “It’s only a Jew, and we are making him eat raw pork!”

The poor man saw in my appearance the symptoms of sympathizing humanity, and entreated my compassion and help. I spoke to his persecutors and they hooted at me. I retired and succeeded in gain-

ing the attention of some by-standers and in rousing their feelings. One posted off for the parish officers, and the rest, headed by me, broke through the rabble and surrounded their victim. Blows were given and received, but justice triumphed, and we guarded the sufferer until he was conveyed to a place of safety by the officers of the parish. But enough of this humiliating subject. I hope the example of our country will convince mankind of the impolicy (the injustice they never doubted) of marking one class of citizens as objects of hatred or suspicion to another, by depriving them of their rights and tolerating their existence.

Our former schoolmate, Winterton, has just been to see me, fresh from Paris, and a fresh proof of the insufficiency of travel to give good sense, or to make of a dunce any other than a coxcomb. This is an old story, I know. Johnny Bull returned from France is a stale joke; and Jonathan proves himself of the same family in the instance of Jemmy Winterton. He has been six months in Paris, and he has mastered all the sciences—become a profound politician, and a connoisseur infallible in the fine arts. He talks of Napoleon and his generals with the familiarity of a bottle companion—speaks in raptures of *Talma*, and in still greater of the *figurantes* of the opera house—but talk of pictures, and he overwhelms you with the contents of the *Gallerie Napoleon*, and stuns you with the names of Italian and Flemish painters—but you will soon have him with you; and, to come back to my starting-point, a proof that travel can only make of a dunce, a coxcomb.



THE MIRAGE.

This phenomenon is calculated to excite the attention of every hearer or reader, and must be to those who have the fortune, good or ill, of witnessing it in its most perfect appearance a cause of intense admiration. There are many natural phenomena which even in the advanced state of science perplex the philosopher, and still require repeated opportunities of observation before a satisfactory theory can be formed.

The Mirage has been seen in various parts of the world, and frequently described. This name has been given to a certain state of the floating atmospheric vapour which shows, as in an aerial mirror to the eye of the observer, distant terrestrial objects, having the appearance of a calm sheet of water with adjoining bodies reflected in it. The most perfect and wonderful exhibitions of this kind take place in the African and Arabian deserts.

Dr. Lichtenstein, in his Travels in Southern Africa, says, "As we reached the summit of one of the numerous hills that lay in our route, we saw, at a *great distance southwards* in the horizon, the sea, as we all thought, exactly as it appears seen under such circumstances. Delighted at a sight of which for two months that we had been travelling inland we had been wholly deprived, we exclaimed unanimously in a tone at once of pleasure and surprise—the sea! the sea!—A moment's reflection was, however, sufficient to convince us that we were now only some hundred feet above the level of the sea, and at least at six miles distance from the coast, it was impossible that the sea could in fact be visible to us. Yet the more we looked, the more our eyes seemed assured that we were not mistaken; the impression was indeed so strong, that almost in spite of myself, I remained for a while halting between belief and doubt; nay, I was at last only convinced that it could not be the sea, from the unevenness of the horizon. The idea then struck me that this appearance originated in a reflection of the sea and coast in the air above; many circumstances strengthened this opinion, and our guide, who was not unacquainted with it, asserted that I was perfectly right; but he said he never recollected seeing it so distinctly. I can scarcely express how much I was delighted at being presented with a phenomenon of which I had heard so much, yet never could form any distinct idea of it.

"I now turned my attention to examining it more particularly, when I made the following observations. It was between nine and ten o'clock in the morning: the sun was to our left, about fifty degrees above the horizon: it was not itself visible, but its situation was plainly to be distinguished glistening through the thin vapour with which the air was entirely filled. The heat was 66 degrees by Fahrenheit, and the peasants foretold rain, which, in fact, fell abundantly in the evening. Not a morsel of sky was to be seen, or any thing which in the least broke the mass of vapour: it was nearly a dead calm, a very trifling breeze only came occasionally from the quarter on which the coast lay. The appearance in the air still continued the same, and was exactly like the sea as seen from the Table-Mountain at an immense distance. From a longer observation I was convinced that the unevenness we had observed in the horizon, that jagged margin which divided the dark blue of the supposed sea from the light gray of the heavens, was, in fact, the reflection of the coast, with its projections and creeks; and when I imparted this idea to my companions, they unanimously concurred in it with applauses of my ingenuity. It seemed then as if the effect we saw was produced by our point of vision falling exactly on the spot, where the sea, which was mildly illumined by the rays of the sun, was reflected back, as in a concave mirror, upon the heavens above, and it was only

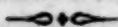
visible to us from the circumstance of our being enveloped in a thick vapour, which concealed the sun entirely from us. The phenomenon will not then be difficult to explain: it must arise solely from the relative height of the object with that of the reflecting medium, and upon there being such a degree of density in the latter, that it is capable of refracting the rays, so as to leave only the degree of light necessary for the object to be distinctly represented in the picture; something too must depend upon the relative situation of the sun and that of the spectator."

This was on the 15th of December. Dr. Clarke saw the same phenomenon in the North of Africa on the 26th of April. I will give his narration. "We procured asses for all our party, and setting out for Rosetta began to re-cross the desert, appearing like an ocean of sand, but flatter and firmer, as to its surface, than before. The Arabs, uttering their harsh guttural language, ran chattering by the side of our asses; until some of them calling out '*Raschid!*' we perceived domes and turrets, apparently upon the opposite side of an immense lake or sea, that covered all the intervening space between us and the city. Not having in my own mind at the time, any doubt as to the certainty of its being water, and seeing the tall minarets and buildings of Rosetta, with all its groves of dates and sycamores as perfectly reflected by it as by a mirror, insomuch that even the minutest detail of the architecture and of the trees, might have been thence delineated, I applied to the Arabs to be informed in what manner we were to pass the water. Our interpreter, although a Greek, and therefore likely to have been informed of such a phenomenon, was as fully convinced as any of us that we were drawing near the water's edge, and became indignant when the Arabs maintained that within an hour we should reach Rosetta by crossing the sands in the direct line we then pursued, and that there was no water. 'What!' said he, giving way to his impatience, 'do you suppose me an idiot, to be persuaded contrary to the evidence of my senses?' The Arabs, smiling, soon pacified him, and completely astonished the whole party, by desiring us to look back at the desert we had already passed, where we beheld a *precisely similar appearance*. It was, in fact, the *Mirage*, a prodigy to which every one of us were then strangers, although it afterwards became more familiar. Yet upon no future occasion did we ever behold this extraordinary illusion so marvellously displayed." Travels, Vol. 2, p. 295.

Citizen *Monge* describes the *Mirage* thus: "Morning and evening, the appearance of the ground is such as it ought to be; and between yourself and the farthest villages within view, you discover the ground only; but from the time the surface of the soil is sufficiently heated by the action of the sun, until it begins to be somewhat cooler towards even-

ing, the land seems not to have the same extent as before, but to be terminated at about a league in advance by a general inundation. The villages which are situated beyond that distance assume the appearance of islands, in the midst of a great lake, while their distance seems to be more or less considerable. Under each of these villages its image seems reversed, such as it would be seen if there were really before the beholder, a surface of water in which it might be reflected."

Dr. Clarke closes his observations by saying, "The view of it afforded us ideas of the horrible despondency to which travellers must sometimes be exposed, who, in traversing the interminable desert, destitute of water, and perishing with thirst, have sometimes this deceitful prospect before their eyes."



FOR THE MONTHLY RECORDER.

MR. RECORDER,

I presume that papers of the length and nature of that which I send to you with this, cannot consistently make a part of your work monthly or regularly; but the information here contained is so much wanted, and is of such utility to a people like us, by the nature of their situation maritime, that I hope you will find room, even in your first number, to insert it.

Yours.

T. B.

Abstract of the Documents accompanying the Report of the Committee on an increase of the Navy of the United States.

A 74 gun ship, mounting 88 guns, discharges in one round 3224lbs. cannon ball; a 44 gun frigate, mounting 54, discharges but 1438lbs. The first discharges at a broadside 1588lbs. the second only 744lbs. Captain Charles Stewart says, "Ships of the line are much stronger in scantling, thicker in the sides and bottom, less penetrable to the shot, and consequently less liable to be torn or battered to pieces, or sunk: the additional room being more than in proportion to the additional number of men, leaves greater space for water and provisions, and admits of her wings being kept clear, that shot penetrating below the water, the holes can readily be plugged up from the inside, and her sinking thereby prevented; hence we have seen ships of the line capable of battering one another for several hours, and if not too much crippled in the spars and rigging, enabled to renew an action on following days. I am aware that some are of opinion, that a more divided force is better calculated for action, from the advantageous position that would be given to a part: suppose three frigates of 50 guns were to undertake to batter a 74 gun ship, and that two of these were to occupy the quarter and stern of

the 74, (this is placing them in the most favourable position) the other frigate engaged abreast, every thing would then depend on the time the frigate abreast could maintain that position to enable the other two to act with effect on the stern quarter. But it must appear evident to all acquainted with the two classes of ships, that the frigate abreast could not withstand the fire of so heavy and compact a battery many minutes; and in all probability would be dismasted or sunk the first or second broadside. This would decide the fate of the other two. Much might be said upon the superiority of ships of the line over frigates in the attack of batteries or their defence; on the security of valuable convoys of merchant ships, or troops sent on an expedition; but their advantage in these respects, must be apparent to all, however unacquainted with nautical affairs."

Three frigates rating 44 guns appear to be scarcely equal to one 74 gun ship, and the cost of building the 74 is stated as \$333,000, of the 44, \$220,910. A 74 requires 650, a 44, 420 men. A 74 carries on her lower gun deck 28 forty-two pound long cannon; on her upper gun deck 30 long twenty-four pounders; on her quarter deck 16 forty-two pound caronades; on her forecastle 8 forty-two pound caronades and 2 long twenty-four pounders; on her poop 4 sixty-eight pound caronades; making 88 guns. A frigate rating 40, carries on her gun deck 30 long twenty-four pounders; on her quarter deck 14 thirty-two pound caronades, and six of the same on her forecastle; making 50 guns.

Abstract of the II. ART. Quarterly Review for September, 1812.

PERING AND MONEY, ON SHIP BUILDING.

The reviewers agree that the discouraging view taken by one of these writers of the alarming diminution of oak timber of native (English) growth, and by the other, of the premature decay of (English) ships of war, are calculated to excite the most painful sensations in the breasts of Englishmen. They assert that "the act of launching seldom fails to *break* a ship—that is, to alter the line which was straight before launching, to a curve of six or seven inches when floating in the water. This strain loosens, to a certain degree, every fastening in the machine." It appears by an extract from "the third report of the commissioners for revising the civil affairs of the navy," that the French science in ship building is acknowledged to be greater than the English; that they build all ships of one class or rate, of one model, and that such a plan has great advantages; whereas, the English ships of war are built according to the whim or predilection of some lord of the admiralty, or the recommendation of some officer, and the disadvantages arising from such a variety of models, besides that many

of them are bad, is of serious importance to the navy: for instance, "When Lord Nelson was off Cadiz with 17 or 18 sail of the line, he had no less than seven different classes of 74 gun ships, each requiring different masts, sails, yards, &c. so that if one ship was disabled, the others could not supply her with appropriate stores."

Mr. Pering states, that "By the present mode of ship building, a first rate man of war becomes useless from premature decay, in *five* or *six*, and the average duration of the navy itself may be said to be limited to *eight* years."

Among the instances of rapid decay from bad workmanship or bad timber, or timber badly prepared, the most remarkable are, the Ocean, the Foudroyant, the St. Domingo, the Rodney, the Ajax, and the Albion, who were falling to pieces in five and three years after launching; and the Queen Charlotte, "launched at Deptford in 1810, sent round to Plymouth, under jury masts, in 1811, found too rotten to be sea-worthy," and now repairing. The disease which occasions this rapid decay of timber is called the *dry rot*, supposed to be caused by felling the tree in the spring, or when full of sap: the remedy proposed is to *bark* the trees in the spring and *fell* them in the winter; or, at all events, to fell the timber in the winter, and not use it until more than one year has elapsed from the time of *felling*; during which interval to keep it dry.

It is asserted by the reviewers, that all the attempts made to destroy the principle of vegetation in timber, by impregnating it with chemical preparations, have failed.

Mr. Pering suggests building ships under cover. The Swedes, French, and Venetians do so. If, in the building, they are exposed to rain and sun, let that exposure be for as short a time as possible. Six months is amply sufficient to build a ship of the line, if all the timber has been previously prepared and collected on the spot. "The expense of a covered dock would be doubly saved in the first line-of-battle ship built in it. The workmen would perform their work sooner and better, because no kind of weather would interrupt their progress. The ship would be calked, and painted, and coppered, when dry, to the exclusion of partial leaks, suffocating damp, and oozing drips."

Another cause of decay is the use of treenails of an inch or an inch and a half diameter, instead of copper bolts of about seven-eighths of an inch in diameter, "for fastening the planks of a ship to her side." The increased expense is stated at between 2 and 3000 pounds sterling. Mr. Pering likewise recommends that the bolts of the knees, "and hooks, and the nails of the decks" should be copper. On the subject of fastening by screws instead of clenching, "by battering the ends of the bolts over metal rings," I will quote a few lines.

"Let a coachmaker build a coach, and fasten it together in the same way as a shipwright fastens a ship, by driving in bolts, and then clenching them on the wood; how long will that coach run over the stones in London; or on the turnpike road? But he resorts to a different mode, which is the strongest in the world, that of compressing wood into wood by means of a *screw*, instead of a clench; by this all racking is done away, for a certain time, till the wood shrinks, on the observation of which the carriage is again driven to the coachmaker's, and the fastenings are hove up. Now let any man in the world, whether he be a mechanic or not, decide which is the best mode of fastening—a clench or a screw."—"No bolt was ever yet driven into a ship that performed the office it was meant to do. In the first place wood is never compressed to wood by a clench; in the next, the shrinking of the wood gives play to the bolt—suppose the pieces forming a mast to be fastened by bolts, and the hoops left off, how long would it stand? It is the compression alone that gives it strength."

The last cause of premature decay is bad calking. "A fixed number of threads of oakum must be driven into every seam, be the width of it what it may; if too narrow to admit the quantity, the *reaming* iron is applied to open it; the consequence of which is, that the whole strain falls upon the plank immediately below the iron, the treenails are upset, the lower edge of the plank is forced over the upper edge of the next inferior one, like the wooden shingles of a roof; the plank starts from the timbers, the calker dabs off the projecting edge to make an even surface for the copper sheathing, and all is right!"

Mr. Pering's new mode is thus summed up: "Convert the timbers, set up the frame, and finish the ship out of the way, without at all caring whether the timbers are green or not—let her stand to season, but by no means let a calking-iron approach her side for two years at least—no more of her bolts should be driven, than may be sufficient to hold her together, as every aperture should be left open for the circulation of air; no treenails should be used on any account, but the work should be fastened with copper alone wherever it is practicable. The advantages are, that the timbers, plank, bulk-heads, and all other parts of the ship would be equally and properly seasoned together; and the calking of the ship to be done just before she is put into the water, when her plank has so shrunk as to be likely to shrink no more. Every part of the ship would thus be as dry as possible; no fungus, no drip, no unwholesome damp would arise, to endanger the health of the ship's company; the sides of the vessel will be both *wind-tight* and *water-tight*; the plank swelling upon the oakum will unite with it and form one solid body. When the seasoning is deemed complete, then let the screws on the ends of the bolts be hove up, so as to bring wood and wood to-

gether in the closest contact. The ship would now be as tight as a drum, water proof, and healthy throughout."

Mr. Money complains of the scarcity of oak timber for ship building, and proposes the building ships at Bombay of teak wood.

"The quality of teak is in every respect preferable to that of oak for ship building. The alternate exposure to a vertical sun, and to the drenching rain of the wet monsoon, which would rend in pieces European oak, produces no injurious effects upon teak. Many of the upright timbers for securing the stays in the old docks at Bombay have stood more than forty years without paint or tar, and are still as perfect as when erected.

'A piece of teak was taken out of a gate of one of Tippoo's forts in Canara, which had been exposed to every change of weather for more than half a century, and when brought to Bombay was ascertained to be unimpaired, with nails, which had secured it, quite free from corrosion or rust, and as sound as when first driven.' "

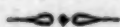
Teak preserves iron; oak destroys it. The cost of building a ship of the line in England is £33 10s. per ton; in Bombay £35. "Every line-of-battle ship will carry the duplicate of her frame in her hold; and we understand that the admiralty, in giving directions for the building of the Cornwallis, a 74 gun ship now on the stocks at Bombay, have ordered the timbers of another ship of the same lines and dimensions to be prepared at the same time, and to be brought home in her hold and set up in England." Plantations of oak have so diminished "that if we go on building ships of the line at the rate in which we have proceeded for the last six years, the whole of our native oak will be exhausted in less than twenty years. At this moment, scarcely any of that large and crooked timber required for first and second rates is to be found in the country: this, at one period, would have been considered as an evil beyond the reach of remedy. Necessity, however, has in this, as in similar cases, suggested expedients in the substitution of iron knees, and of large and crooked pieces of timber artificially put together by a mode called *scarfing*, and by other methods, invented and adopted by Mr. Seppings, the ingenious builder of Chatham yard, who may be said to have established a new era in naval architecture."

On the subject of "ships laid up in ordinary," the reviewers have the following opinions: "We should rather define it as the state in which a good sound ship may in the quietest manner possible, *become rotten* in a given number of years, without being of any use whatever in the mean time, except that of creating a considerable expense, in the interest of a dead capital, the pay of her warrant officers, and the wear and tear of her mooring tackle; besides encumbering the harbour

where she is laid up. A ship, as soon as lanchied, if not immediately wanted for service, is put into a state of ordinary. If she has been built of unseasoned timber, or of seasoned timber mixed with American oak or pitch pine, it is pretty clear that, in the course of twelve months, the dry rot will have made a considerable progress; if put together in the usual manner, as described by Mr. Pering, in two years she will be sufficiently shrunk to play pretty freely on her fastenings, and to let in 'oozing drip;' and at the end of five years, she will require what is called a 'thorough repair,' to put her into a state of service. Mr. Pering asserts positively, 'that no ship ever received a thorough repair without costing more money than when she was built, and in some instances half as much again.' It may thus happen that a 74 gun ship, without performing one day's service, may, some five or six years after lanching, be brought forward from the ordinary, at an expense to the public of £150,000." They state the French navy to be 65 ships of the line and 51 frigates ready for sea, and 32 ships of the line and 36 frigates fitting and building. The number of ships in commission in the English navy as 100 or 105 ships of the line, and 140 or 150 frigates.

As at this moment there is nothing so dear to the heart of an American as the established superiority of our naval officers and seamen, and the growing power of our navy, except that state of honourable peace, which is desirable above all earthly things, I think you will do right to make use of your publication to disseminate the naval knowledge of our present adversaries, at a time when a portion of the resources of the nation are devoted, with such popular enthusiasm, to ship building for national defence.

Your well-wisher. T. B.



MITCHILL'S MEMORANDUMS,

Historical and Chronological, of Canadian Wars, &c.

(Concluded from Recorder No. I.—page 38.)

CANADIAN WARS, FROM THE RUPTURE IN 1753, TO THE TREATY OF PARIS, IN 1763.

1753. During the month of November this year, Major Washington was sent by Governour Dinwiddie to carry a letter to the French officer commanding the stations along the Ohio, complaining of the intrusions of the French into that colony, and requesting them to depart. The major went to a fort about sixty miles beyond Venango, and returned to Williamsburgh near the middle of December, bringing for answer, that the commandant would send the letter and

message to the Marquis de Guisne, and that whatever he commanded should be done; but that in the mean time he, the officer, should maintain his post. The French finally refused to withdraw.

1754. The British government took immediate measures for driving the French away. A force was collected from the neighbouring colonies, for the purpose of forming a camp of two thousand men, in a convenient place near the Ohio. While this army was gathering, the French took and plundered the block-house and factory of Logstown. They pushed forward under Monsieur Contrecoeur, and took a military station, commanded by a British officer, at the forks of the Monongehala. The officer capitulated, on condition of marching out with all that the fort contained, and leaving the ground. But as he was retiring, he soon met the troops which had been ordered up the Potomac from Alexandria to reinforce him, under the command of Colonel Washington. They all entrenched themselves on Redstone-Creek, about seven miles from the post that had been abandoned.

This year, on the 4th June, a congress was held at Albany, between the provincial governours, or their commissioners, and the sachems and warriors of the six nations; for the purpose of establishing a right and friendly understanding with each other and with the Indians; and also for co-operating more effectually against the French. The Indians there agreed to take up the hatchet against the French.

While these events were taking place, Washington had gained an advantage at the Great Meadows, over a small party of French troops. But he soon learned that the enemy was marching with superiour numbers to attack him. After some exchanges of shot for a day, a parley was held, and it was agreed that the parties should separate; and the French return to Monongehala, while the English retired to Wills's-Creek. The station occupied by Washington was called Fort Necessity. In the articles of capitulation signed by Monsieur Villier, the French commandant, his force is called a garrison, and the French are stated to have formed a blockade.

As far as I can ascertain the fact, orders for hostilities were given to General Braddock during this year. In his speech to the assembly of Virginia, Governour Dinwiddie now announced the dangerous situation of the colonies, by reason of French encroachments upon the frontiers; and Governour Dobbs sent a message to the same effect to the legislature of North-Carolina, in November. Something of the same kind ran through all the provinces.

1755. George II. declared war against the French king, by a proclamation, dated at Kensington, May 17, 1755. Admiral Boscawen was commissioned to act against the enemy by sea.

This year the operations against the French were concerted, as far

as I have been able to trace them out, according to the following plan. The possessions of the enemy were to be assailed in five different ways, thus :

1. An attack upon Cape Breton and Louisbourg, in the island of St. John, in order to dispossess the French of all their holds and possessions in Nova Scotia and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

2. A competent body of troops to rendezvous at Alexandria, and proceed up the Potomac, for the purpose of penetrating to Fort Du Quesne, and dispossessing the enemy of that important station.

3. The forts of Ticonderoga and Crown Point to be attacked by the regular troops and the provincial levies from New-York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-Hampshire, and Rhode-Island. For this expedition they were to repair to Albany.

4. The fort of Niagara and its dependencies to be invested by the regulars and New-Jersey provincials, who were also to embody themselves and proceed to Albany for further orders.

5. A detachment of men to proceed up the River Kennebec and repel the encroachments made by the enemy south of the St. Lawrence, and along the River Chaudiere.

The principal part of this year seems to have been occupied in military and naval preparations—all was bustle and equipment. The colonial legislatures entered into the measures generally with spirit ; they voted money liberally ; they furnished their quotas of men ; they contributed aids and supplies ; they were flushed with expectations of conquest and glory. Every body believed Canada would speedily be ours, and that we should soon get rid of a troublesome and mischievous neighbour.

There were, however, some reverses. The enemy did not withdraw from his possessions so soon as had been anticipated.

The campaign of 1755 opened by the expedition under General Braddock. He ascended the Potomac, and marched with his army to a place about ten miles distant from Fort Du Quesne, the ultimate point of his destination. There his force was defeated and himself killed, by the French and the savages in their alliance. This happened in the vicinity of the Monongehala, in the month of July.

This was a disastrous beginning ; it was, nevertheless, but a trifle in comparison of the misfortunes that followed.

1756. While the colonists and the British government were rallying, after this shock, near Pittsburgh, the enemy made a successful attack upon Oswego, a station of great importance in those days, on Lake Ontario. In July that year, General Dieskau* made himself master of Forts Ontario and Oswego. By the articles of capitulation the officers and soldiers were sent to England, whither they arrived

the ensuing November. All the armed vessels and boats, forming a considerable fleet, with many pieces of ordnance and stores of great value, fell into the hands of the enemy. After possessing themselves of the spoil, the French destroyed the forts and retired.

On this occasion the people were agitated almost to convulsions. Blindness to consequences, want of foresight, incapacity to plan, and inability to execute, were all charged upon the conductors of the war. No system, no concert, no co-operation in the managers. There was an universal clamour of all against all, for carrying men to be made corpses or captives by the enemy; or, what was worse, to be exposed to cold, hunger, wounds, and diseases, without due supplies of clothing, food, remedies, or comforts. And when the brave fellows had health and stomachs to fight, frequently their arms were out of order, or ammunition was wanting. General Shirley was the scape-goat of the day, and received a full measure of censure for having retired from his garrison and remained inactive from September, 1755, to March, 1756.

The consternation at this transaction was so great, that the British and provincials were afraid to remain in their military works at the great carrying place of Oneida, between the Mohawk River and Wood Creek. They destroyed their works with their own hands, and retreated, under the command of General Webb, to Burnet's Field, near the German Flats. This step brought out increased and deeper denunciations from the public against the military commanders and those who recommended them.

The enemy took advantage of his successes, and of the impression they had made. During the same year (1756) General Montcalm, at the head of an army of ten thousand men, crossed Lake Champlain to Crown Point, then a French fort, and passing Lake George, took the English fort William Henry, commanded by Colonel Munro, after a siege of five or six days. He carried off the provisions and stores, and before he withdrew demolished the fortifications. He acquired the possession of all boats and vessels on the lake. He disqualified the garrison of more than two thousand men from serving against the French, during the ensuing eighteen months. However, the provision of this last article was but partially operative; for the savages fell upon the prisoners as they marched out, and immediately killed and scalped a great number of them.

This unexpected and horrid affair worked up the public mind almost to frenzy, and a full proportion of the talking of the times, was employed in reflection upon the imbecility, the incapacity, the timidity, the improvidence of the rulers, and of those who acted under them.

In this state of distraction and perplexity, a great man was brought forward to adopt efficient measures, repel the enemy, and compose indignant feeling. This was the Scottish nobleman, John, Earl of Loudon. This person seems to have acted, for a short time, a prominent part in American affairs. In February, 1756, the king had appointed him governor in chief of Virginia. In March he had been created, in addition to his commission of major-general, general and commander in chief of all his majesty's forces; immediately after which he was appointed colonel in chief of the 62d or royal American regiment of foot, to be forthwith raised in North America. The disasters of the season induced this great commander to publish an address to the governors of the provinces, dated at Albany, October 20th, calling upon them for men and arms, as well as for carriages and supplies of provisions. The colonial governments exerted themselves again with various degrees of vigour and success.

1757. Lord Loudon sailed from New-York in May, with a powerful fleet, having eleven thousand troops on board, on an expedition against Cape Breton and the French settlements in that dependency. He was joined at Halifax by Admiral Holbourn, with a reinforcement, amounting to thirty-three ships of war. They waited for one another, they reconnoitred the coast, they inquired into the enemy's strength, and in short they spent so much time, and gave the French so much opportunity for preparation, that it was determined not to attack them. So this great commander returned safe to New-York, in August, without having achieved any thing. The general expectation was so disappointed at this abortive attempt, that it burst all bounds.

The vehemence of the blame was aggravated by another misfortune. While Loudon was engaged in that inefficient service, the French ravaged the German Flats, and besides spreading terror far and wide, and doing all the mischief in their power, (summer, 1757,) carried away into captivity many families and individuals from that part of the Mohawk River settlements.

The unprosperous condition of the war under Lord Loudon, rendered it necessary to remove him from the command. He was accordingly superceded at the end of the year, and General Abercrombie, an officer of sufficient weight and popularity nominated to succeed him. This new commander sailed from Portsmouth with troops, early in January, 1758, in a fleet commanded by Admiral Boscawen, who was ordered to take the place of Holbourn, who had been unsuccessful.

1758. General Abercrombie proceeded from New-York, by the way of Albany, to Lake George. This water he crossed with his

army of regulars and provincials ; but in July he was defeated at Ticonderoga, by the French, after great loss. With the remains of his forces he retreated to Fort William Henry, and sent the wounded soldiers and officers back to Fort Edward and Albany. In this action the British were supposed to have lost at least two thousand men. On this unhappy transaction the outcry of discontent was renewed. Was there never to be an end, it was asked, of such disgraceful doings ? Ought a British army of 14,000, to be beaten and driven away from the field before a French force of only 3,000 ? Would the government never learn wisdom ? Would their officers and commanders never acquire skill and care ? Must the armies that a patriotic spirit raised, be treated by their own directors and purveyors worse than by the foe ? Stout hearts would despise or surmount the worst of an enemy's daring ; but fatigue, with no place nor time for repose ; and labour, with no refreshment from food and drink ; and the hardships of a campaign, without even a soldier's comforts, were too much for flesh and blood to bear.

But the tide soon began to turn ; for the French were repulsed at Loyalhanning, in Pennsylvania, (Fort Ligonier) in an attack they made upon the advanced guard of the British army, marching towards Fort Du Quesne, under General Forbes. This fortunate affair put the troops and the country in high spirits.

Forbes had succeeded the fallen Braddock. Another attempt was to be made upon Fort Du Quesne. The route of the Potomac and Monongehala was given up, and in May, 1758, Forbes proceeded from Philadelphia toward that station, by the way of Carlisle and Bedford. He had a sufficient force, and advanced by regular approaches. He succeeded in several skirmishes besides the one just mentioned. The enemy was very much alarmed, and their commander, Mons. Delanarie, finally abandoned with precipitation their strong and important hold, after throwing their cannon into the river, and setting fire to their buildings. The exploit was done, the fort taken, and the campaign closed during 1758, or, at the furthest, before the middle of the ensuing month of January.

While these things were going on by land, Admiral Boscawen was not inactive by sea. With the aid of the provincials, who turned out with remarkable resolution, he succeeded in reducing Louisbourg in June and July, 1758. His fleet consisted of one hundred and fifty-seven sail ; and the French prisoners who capitulated, almost to 6,000, together with a number of vessels, a large park of ordnance, and a rich supply of stores. With these successes every body was elevated, and the murmurs of discontent were changed into shouts of joy.

To the unfortunate Abercrombie a successor was quickly sent :

this was major-general sir Jeffry Amherst. His proceedings were so prompt and satisfactory in retrieving the lapsed affairs of the colonies, that the House of Commons voted him their thanks for the services he had done for his king and country, in North America. His answer to this compliment was dated at New-York, the 16th April, 1759.

1759. The favourable events of the preceding year, were but preludes to those which brought victory and glory to our cause during the present.

Amherst mustered his troops so formidably, and took such regular and systematic measures for the northern campaign, that in July the French commander, Mons. Bourlamaque, abandoned Ticonderoga on his approach, after destroying the fortified works. The place was immediately occupied by the English. The French shortly after deserted Crown Point, and withdrew to the Isle Aux Noix, at the further extremity of Lake Champlain. Amherst fortified Crown Point, constructed vessels of force, and boats, and opened roads in various directions for procuring cattle and provisions; so that by the middle of October he had gained the intire command of Lake Champlain.

In the west, matters were yet more prosperous; for Fort Niagara surrendered to sir William Johnson on the 25th July. The French had made an attempt to reinforce the besieged. For this purpose they had drawn men from Detroit, Venango, and Presque Isle, to the number of 1,200. But these had been intercepted and beaten, between the great cataract and the fortress below.

The same season was distinguished for another capital achievement. General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself at the siege of Louisbourg, was entrusted with the command of the land forces on an expedition against Quebec. Admiral Holmes commanded the navy. The British army proceeded through the gulf and up the river St. Lawrence, and landed upon the Island of Orleans on the 27th June. After various attempts, manœuvres and reverses, Quebec capitulated on the 20th September, to General Townshend, who succeeded the deceased Wolfe in the command. This splendid success was produced by vigorous and combined efforts of the fleet and army. The sensation it produced was so strong and agreeable, that the House of Commons voted thanks to the admirals and generals employed in that glorious and successful expedition; in consequence of which, Rear-Admiral Holmes, Vice-Admiral Saunders, and General Townshend did, in January, 1760, receive the declaration thereof at the bar, in person, from the lips of the speaker; and as a special honour to the memory of Wolfe, it was humbly desired that the king would cause a monument to be erected in Westminster Abbey, and that the Com-

mons would make good the expense. Thus closed the campaign of 1759, after a series of victories and successes that retrieved all the lost credit of the nation, and raised its character to the highest pitch of bravery and good fortune.

1760. The spring of 1760 found General Amherst in person at Oswego, Colonel Haviland at Crown Point, General Murray at Quebec, and Lord Rollo proceeding from Louisbourg, with a force of eleven hundred men to join him.

Amherst ordered the armed vessels, snows, and galleys on from Niagara. Sir William Johnson, with his Indians and the provincial troops from Albany, continued to assemble at Oswego from 14th July to 6th August. On the 7th Colonel Haldimand proceeded down Lake Ontario towards La Galette, a fort near the rapids of the St. Lawrence; the rest of the troops followed on the 10th. Oswegatchie was taken on the 17th. After the abandonment of Galot's Island, and of several other stations successively by the enemy, the fort of La Galette capitulated on the 25th, after a heavy cannonade, and preparations, on our part, for a storm.

In the beginning of September the army descended the Rapids with some loss of boats and men, and passing the Isle Aux Chats, crossed Lake St. Francis; thence it proceeded downwards to the Cedars, where a considerable number of men were drowned, and boats stove, in passing the Rapids to the Isle of Perrot. Having refreshed here, the army effected a landing at La Chine, upon the Island of Montreal, on the 6th of September.

In the mean time, General Murray, who had wintered his troops at Chambeaux and Jaques Cartier, was ascending, with all possible diligence, from Quebec towards Montreal, swearing the inhabitants to allegiance, and receiving submissions as he progressed. Where they did not give up, he burned their houses and destroyed their improvements. He had, indeed, exerted himself so ably, that by the 24th August he had reached Contrecoeur, a place only nine miles distant from Montreal. This was the day before that on which La Galette had surrendered to Amherst up the river. As yet Murray had had no intelligence of that officer's operations. The French General De Levis, seeing the bad posture of his sovereign's affairs, avoided fighting, and abandoned one post after another, until he reached Montreal.

On the 3th September Colonel Haviland, from Crown Point, with 2500 regulars, and 3000 provincials, under General Ruggles, reached the southern shore of the St. Lawrence, opposite Amherst's camp. He had overcome the remaining force of the enemy on Lake Champlain; he had taken possession of the Isle Aux Noix, in the River

Sorel, which the French had abandoned on his approach; and he had reached the great place of destination, Montreal, on the very day of its capitulation to the English and provincial forces. The act of surrender was signed by the Marquis of Vandrenil, governour of Canada, on the 8th of September, 1760.

Nor were these all the fortunate transactions of this eventful season; for Captain Byron sailed from Louisbourg to the Bay of Chaleurs, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, with a powerful fleet, and there destroyed the armed vessels, store ships, and smaller craft, belonging to the French, and stationed at Rustigouchi, near the head of that harbour.

It is not unworthy of notice that, during the month of March this year, a company of miners was sent from Plymouth to dismantle the fortresses at Louisbourg and blow up the works, which the English no longer wished to preserve or to garrison.

But, the sunshine of this year, brilliant as it was, suffered, nevertheless, a small obscuration. A troublesome and vexatious warfare had arisen with the Cherokee Indians. It was more than imagined that these savages had been instigated by the enemy to raise the tomahawk against the inhabitants of the southern colonies. One of the occurrences of this hostility was the following: the officers of Fort Loudon, after having suffered the utmost extremities of hunger and distress, surrendered themselves, on the 6th August, to the Indians, on condition of being safely conducted to Carolina; but were directly after massacred by the savages, with the exception of Captain Stuart the commanding officer.

And during this season, too, Colonel Montgomery marched from Ninety-Six, in South-Carolina, on an expedition against the Cherokees. He started on the 28th May. He had a terrible march through the wilderness, and succeeded in destroying their town of Estatoe, killed a few of the natives, and took some prisoners. But he judged it adviseable to retreat, which he effected with some loss in killed and wounded men, and placed the survivors of his party in safety at Fort Prince George.

It ought to be noted, that there was a demise of the British crown toward the end of this year; for George II. died suddenly, at the age of 77, after a reign of nearly thirty-four years. His death happened amidst these great achievements, on the 25th day of October; and George III. was duly proclaimed his successor on the 26th of the same month.

1761. It was now necessary to terminate the Cherokee war. Accordingly in January this year, a thousand men were sent from New-York to Charleston, for the purpose of operating against these In-

dians. As early as the 9th May, 3000 men were ready to march thence, under Colonel Grant. Before August, the expedition had reached the enemy's country, burned fifteen of their towns, destroyed their corn, and driven five thousand of their people, men, women, and children, into the wilderness, where they would be obliged to starve or to sue for peace. This intelligence was communicated to the government in a letter from Albany, dated 13th August. Soon after a peace was concluded with them. At Charleston the flag was displayed, and the guns fired at the Grenville bastion, on the occasion. And in June, 1762, three of their chiefs went to London, were presented to the king, and returned to Charleston in August. Thus peace was restored to the frontiers of the Carolinas. I do not recollect any thing very memorable besides during this year.

1762. This year was, however, a busy one. The war was continued and considerably diversified; for,

First. The island of Martinique surrendered to the English arms early in February; the army having been commanded by General Monkton, and the fleet by Admiral Rodney.

Secondly. A descent was made upon Newfoundland by the French, under the command of Admiral De Ternay, and General Haussonville. They sailed from Brest, and landed 24th June, at the Bay of Bulls. Very soon after, St. Johns, Placentia, and the whole island submitted. They burned and destroyed all the vessels, scaffolds and implements belonging to the fishery.

Thirdly. Immediately thereupon General Amherst issued orders from New-York for its recapture, and it was accordingly recovered to the British sovereignty that very season. Colonel William Amherst went from New-York to Halifax and Louisbourg with the transports to take up the troops necessary for the expedition. He reached Newfoundland on the 26th August. He was joined by a fleet commanded by Admiral Lord Colville, and effected a landing at Torbay, about three leagues to the northward of St. Johns, before the 12th September, and after sufficient resistance and fighting, the French, under Haussonville, capitulated on the 18th.

Fourthly. During the month of June, 1762, a grand fleet of men of war and transports, with troops, ordnance and munitions of war, sailed from New-York on an expedition to Cuba. They were commanded at Havana by Admiral Pocock. The land forces were commanded by the Earl of Albemarle. Such vigour, spirit and despatch were employed, that the Moro fort was carried by storm on the 30th July. This feat of heroism so established the power and character of the English, that a capitulation was signed on the 13th August, by the Marquis de Real Transporte, commander in chief of the king

of Spain's squadron, and Don Juan de Prado, his Governour of Havana.

Thus every enterprize prospered, and the leading and important objects of the war seemed to have been obtained. In consequence of which, on the 27th November, a proclamation was published in the London Gazette, dated on the 26th, declaring a cessation of hostilities by land and by sea, and prescribing various regulations of times as to captures in remote places. On the 9th December, at an assembly of the most numerous house of commons that had been known during the year, summoned to take into consideration the preliminary articles of peace, those articles were approved by a very great majority. On the next day, the house of peers waited on the king with their address of thanks on the preliminary articles of peace, and on the 13th the commons did the like.

The English calculation was, that in the course of that war, they had taken from the French 18 ships of the line and 36 frigates, and destroyed 14 ships and 13 frigates; and that the enemy had lost by accidents, 5 ships and 6 frigates; so that their navy had been deprived of 37 capital ships, and 55 frigates. From Spain they had taken 12 ships and 4 frigates. The English computed their own loss at two frigates taken, and 3 destroyed; and 13 ships and 14 frigates lost by accidents.

At length, all things being fully considered and adjusted, the definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris on the 10th day of February, 1763, by the Duke of Bedford, the Duke of Choiseul, and the Marquis Grimaldi, in behalf of their respective sovereigns. By this important treaty, among many other mutual agreements and concessions, the French monarch renounced all his title to Nova-Scotia, to Cape Breton, and the other islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and to Canada; and the boundary between the French and English settlements was determined to be a line drawn through the middle of the Mississippi, from its source to the mouth of the Iberville, and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the sea. This included the Mobile settlements, and every thing possessed by France to the left of the Mississippi thereabout, except the city and island of New-Orleans; and to this Spain added the cession of Florida, with St. Augustine, Pensacola, &c. with the other possessions of Spain east of the Mississippi, in that quarter.

CANADIAN WARS, FROM THE RUPTURE OF THE COLONIES WITH GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1774, TO THE TREATY OF PARIS, IN 1783.

1774. But the peace of 1763 endured a short time only. The colonists, now freed from French and Indian hostility, had leisure to

speculate about magna charta, and freedom, and rights. On these points a dispute almost immediately arose between the colonies and the mother country. This, after a variety of proceedings, which, because they are of a civil nature, are not here enumerated, grew to serious animosity, and finally to an open rupture. In fact, the peace lasted at the furthest, if peace it might be called, scarcely twelve years. For in the year 1774, the colonies determined on open resistance to Great Britain. On the 5th September, delegates from eleven of the colonies met at Philadelphia: these were New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and South-Carolina. The deputies from North-Carolina took their seats on the 14th, and it was not until July 20th, 1775, that congress received intelligence from Georgia, making it known that that colony had acceded to the general association, and appointed members to attend that body.

It is remarkable how few proselytes the original associators made. This was not their fault. They laboured ably and zealously in the cause. They solicited, in the most pressing terms, the other American colonies of the British crown to join them. A letter was addressed to the people of St. Johns, in Georgia, in October, 1774. This was followed by an elaborate epistle to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. In this the Quebeckers are invited to fraternize, to choose delegates, and send them to the meeting of the continental congress, to be held at Philadelphia on the 10th May, 1775. This important composition was translated, printed, and despatched on the 26th October, 1774.

1775. A very few days after the second congress had assembled, as aforesaid, they became convinced, from certain and positive information, that Great Britain was determined to enforce their laws against the colonies. The ministry, it was declared, had formed a design of making a cruel invasion, from the province of Quebec, upon the associated colonies. This was for the purpose of destroying the lives and liberties of the people. Steps were already taken tending to carry the design into execution. Fearful of the miseries which would arise from the reinforcement of the military stations in the north, a detachment of men from Massachusetts and Connecticut surprised and took Ticonderoga from the British. Congress approved this measure, and took the needful order thereon, as to the cannon, stores, and other matters. News of this event was brought to them by express, on the 18th May. On the 29th of the same month the famous address was voted, *to the oppressed inhabitants* of Canada generally, professing warm friendship for them, and once more cordially inviting them to unite in one common cause.

The delicacy on this point was carried so far that on the 1st June, it was resolved in congress, that no expedition or incursion ought to be made or undertaken by any colony or body of colonists, against or into Canada; and it was ordered that this resolve should be transmitted immediately to the commander of the forces at Ticonderoga, to be translated into the French tongue, and transmitted to the Canadians.

The reason of departing from this resolution was derived from the communication made to congress by Colonel Arnold, from Crown Point, on 23d May, that the British were assembled in considerable force of regulars and Indians at St. Johns, for the purpose of passing Lake Champlain and retaking Crown Point and Ticonderoga; whereupon he earnestly called for reinforcements and supplies, and measures were adopted accordingly, to furnish men, ordnance, provisions, stores and boats for the lakes, as well as a confidential commander for the forces at those two posts.

On the 6th July, 1775, they published their manifesto, setting forth the causes and necessity of their taking up arms.

The 25th was distinguished by a frank and manly address to the assembly of Jamaica, on the encroachments of the crown upon the liberty of the subject, and of their determined spirit of resistance.

On the 25th November, news was received from Major General Schuyler and Brigadier General Montgomery, of the progress of conquest northward, and of the surrender of Fort St. Johns, on the River Sorel. The submission of Chamblee immediately followed, and so rapid was the progress of our arms, that on the 29th, an express arrived at Philadelphia with an official despatch, containing an account of the continental troops having taken possession of Montreal, on the 12th of that month.

For the purpose of understanding, more satisfactorily, the operations of the campaign, and the wants of the army, congress did, in the beginning of November, appoint a committee of three members of their own body, to wit, Mr. Langdon, Mr. Paine, and Mr. Dyer, to repair to the northward, to confer with General Schuyler, and to pursue such instructions as may be given them in charge by congress.

Although the invitations and encouragements held out by congress were not as operative as they wished among the Canadians, the papers distributed among that people produced a considerable operation. These compositions were read with so much effect that their agency, added to the habitual supineness of the inhabitants, disposed the great body of them to take a sort of neutral position, and not to resist the invaders. Others of the Canadians were more spirited, and took up arms on our side. By such persons were two regiments formed;

one commanded by James Livingston, and the other by Moses Hazen. In short, there was an understanding among the parties at the time, that the armed force which entered the country, was not intended to disturb the Canadians in their possessions, but to rescue them from the tyranny of the British government, under which, they were told, they had groaned ever since 1763; but there were others who adhered to their government, and were treated by our people as enemies.

From Montreal, the invaders took possession of the country, up the St. Lawrence as far as the *Cedars*, and before Christmas they had marched to the Plains of Abraham and had summoned Castle Louis to surrender. This having been refused, and the refusal persisted in, Generals Montgomery and Arnold determined to take it by assault. They attempted this on the night of the 31st December, and were repulsed with loss and discomfiture. Of the commanders, the former lost his life, and the latter was severely wounded. The survivors regained their camp with all possible speed, and made no more efforts to gain the possession of Quebec.

1776. As soon as this disaster was known, the greatest possible exertions were made by congress to retrieve it. General Gates and Colonel St. Clair were ordered to the north. A civil committee was appointed, consisting of Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Chase, and Charles Carroll, to repair to Canada, and there pursue such instructions as should be given them by congress. Every practicable method was adopted to procure shipwrights for building boats and vessels on the lakes, to procure gunpowder and ordnance, to enlist men for Canadian service, to obtain specie for their pay, and to give additional bounties for their encouragement.

Notwithstanding all these efforts and precautions, the military service of that region went on but badly. Reinforcements could not be pushed forward promptly enough to support the troops already there. Supplies from the colonies failed. The Canadians assumed more the tone and attitude of resistance. The debilitated remains of our army were withdrawn, and it was fortunate for them that they were permitted to retreat at all. In the course of the season of 1776, all our forces had quitted Canada, and placed themselves in security on the southern extremities of the lakes.

Sometime in July, congress concurred in an opinion, formed by due and careful inquiry, that the miscarriages in Canada, arose from three sources: 1. From the short enlistments of the troops engaged in that service, and their disorderly and disobedient conduct; 2. The want of hard money to pay them, to provide supplies, and to establish magazines and stores; and 3. The prevalence of the small-pox

among the troops, disqualifying, continually, a considerable number from the performance of duty. The rashness and impetuosity of the soldiers are particularly complained of, as precipitating the commanding officers into measures which their prudence might have postponed, had the men been enlisted for a longer term.

There were troubles in the north from other causes. As an indication of these, it ought to be remembered that General Schuyler, one of the most important men then in action, sent his resignation to congress before the end of September, and that early in October they passed a resolve not to accept it, but to request him to continue in his command. Before and at the end of 1776, his head-quarters appear to have been at Saratoga.

Though now our campaign had ended with defeat and affliction on the Canadian frontier, the recovery of our distressed and straggling troops did not restore peace and rest. The project of obtaining and holding Canada was completely at an end. That favourite plan was wholly frustrated. Nobody now expected that the colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence would be a member of our political association.

But to the sentiment of disappointment was superadded another of a more serious kind. We had done enough to provoke retaliation from the British government in Canada. They concerted a grand scheme of retribution for the wrongs we had done them; and our congress and people, well aware of what they deserved, and in fulness of time might expect from the enemy, employed every means of precaution in their power to fortify Ticonderoga, and the passes from the lakes, and to be in a state of preparation to resist a powerful foe, menacing them with a terrible visit from Canada.

A system of preparation and defence along the passes of the lakes was devised with the utmost solicitude during the whole of this year. The Canadian frontier was strengthened and fortified in the best possible manner; and it seems to have been considered, that instead of pushing our conquests to the north, we should be very fortunate if we escaped invasion from that quarter. This was verified the succeeding year.

1777. The British were known to be engaged in preparations for invading New-York from the province of Canada. The command of an army of 10,000 men was given by the British government to general John Burgoyne. In April, St. Clair, now a major-general, was ordered to repair to Ticonderoga, and to serve under General Gates. In May, congress resolved that Albany, Ticonderoga, Fort Stanwix, and their dependencies, be henceforward considered as forming the northern department. Major-General Schuyler was directed forth-

with to take the command there. Early in July our troops were represented as exceedingly distressed for want of blankets at Ticonderoga; the greatest difficulty was experienced in procuring 1,500 for the use of the soldiers there.

Meanwhile the British army advanced, spreading terror through the regions of the north. Before the end of July Ticonderoga and Mount Independence were evacuated by our commanders. Such was the displeasure and solicitude felt on that occasion, that a public inquiry was immediately ordered, into the reasons of so unexpected a step, and into the conduct of the general officers who were in the northern department at the time.

Burgoyne advanced by slow but sure approaches. He penetrated to Stillwater, on the banks of the Hudson, and reached, with the main body of his army, a position not further than thirty miles distant from Albany. His detached force on the east side of that river was overcome and prostrated near Bennington, by the militia of the adjoining country, and himself, after various manœuvres and battles, was obliged to capitulate at Saratoga, on the 17th October. The thanks of congress were warmly expressed on this occasion toward Major-General Gates, commander in chief of the northern department, and to Major-Generals Lincoln and Arnold, and the rest of the officers and troops under his command. They were commended for their brave and successful efforts in support of the independence of their country, whereby an army of the enemy of 10,000 men had been totally defeated; one large detachment of it, strongly posted and entrenched, having been conquered at Bennington; another repulsed with loss and disgrace at Fort Schuyler, and the main army, of 6,000 men, under Lieutenant-General Burgoyne, after being beaten in different actions, and driven from a formidable post and strong entrenchments, reduced to the necessity of surrendering themselves, upon terms advantageous and honourable to these states. A medal of gold was ordered to be struck, under the direction of the board of war, in commemoration of that great event, and in the name of the United States be presented, by the President to General Gates.

This same season another attack was made upon the state of New-York, from the west. An army of British regulars, embodied Tories, and associated Indians, came by the way of Oswego and the Oneida Lake, and made an attack upon Fort Schuyler, near the head of the Mohawk river, at the grand Portage. This work was resolutely defended by the troops under the command of Colonels Peter Gansevoort and Marinus Willett. Colonel St. Leger commanded the British regulars, Colonel Butler the Tories, and Captain Brandt and Sir John Johnson the Indians. General Herkimer advanced to the relief

of the besieged, with a party of the New-York militia, and was defeated and killed on his way, a few miles south-east of the fort. The besiegers finally grew discouraged and alarmed, and raised the siege, departing hastily by the route they came, in the month of September. They were apprehensive of the death or captivity that would await them if they continued longer in a country whose inhabitants were rising against them. The enemy returned no more to the siege.

A monument was voted to Herkimer, the command of the fort to Gansevoort, and a sword to Willett.

Thus the two invasions of our territory turned out ingloriously for their authors.

1778. An alliance was formed with France, one of the early fruits of which was a proposal for the invasion of Canada. La Fayette proposed it in the name of his court. A French fleet and army were to co-operate with us.

During the month of November, 1778, the plan for reducing Canada was forwarded by congress to General Washington, for his opinion upon it. His observations were communicated. They were referred to a committee, together with the plan. Afterwards a conference was held with him personally, at Philadelphia, on this important subject; and on the whole it was concluded, that the enterprize for the emancipation of Canada should be given up. The predominating reason, at that time, probably was, that congress feared the French would gain the possession and hold it, and be worse neighbours than the British.

Some interesting events took place in the western country this year and the succeeding. Post Vincennes, on the Wabash, was in the possession of the British, and the military force there commanded by Colonel Hamilton, who was also the governour of Detroit. Hamilton had been very active in promoting the Indians to harass the frontiers, and at that time was stirring them up to involve all the settlements west of the Alleghany, in one general ruin. But his design was frustrated by the activity of Colonel Rogers Clark, of Kaskaskias. This brave officer, acting under the authority of the state of Virginia, to whom that station and the adjacent country belonged, forced a march, with a detachment of militia, across the country to post Vincennes, surprised the garrison, took Hamilton a prisoner, and defeated all his plans. This bold and happy stroke was followed by the best consequences, for the American cause. And the whole was completed as early as February, 1779.

1779. Two successful expeditions against the hostile Indians of the six nations were made; one under General Sullivan, and the other under Colonel Van Schaick, during the summer and autumn.

The country of the Six Nations, all of whom, except the Oneidas, had taken up the hatchet against the United States, was to have been invaded by the American forces this year in three directions, to wit, by the Mohawk, the Susquehannah and the Alleghany. But discontents arose in part of the army; and the expedition was made under General Sullivan, and by a detachment under his command. He proceeded to the Seneca country, and broke the force of the savage confederates in that quarter.

After the surrender of Burgoyne and the retreat of St. Leger, there were no military operations of more consequence than those related on the Canadian frontier, during the revolutionary war. The British remained in their strong holds beyond the Champlain and Oneida Lakes; and the continentals not going there any more to attack them, except in an attempt upon Oswego, in 1781, which turned out abortive and disastrous.

1782. In this condition the posts and possessions on the side of the great lakes remained, until the provisional articles for a treaty of peace were agreed upon at Paris on the 30th day of November, 1782, signed by Richard Oswald and John Jay, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and pursuant to the provisions of which treaty, an armistice was signed between our government and the English, on the 20th January, 1783. This was signed by Alleyne Fitzherbert, and part of the same commissioners.

This was followed by the definitive treaty, which was signed at the same place on the 3d day of September, 1783, by David Hartley, and the American commissioners who executed the provisional articles.

By this instrument it was settled that all the lands and territories lying southward of the 45th degree of latitude, and southward and westward of the lakes, away to the Lake of the Woods, should belong to the United States; and thereupon it was concluded that hostilities should cease, prisoners be set at liberty, peace be restored, and armies be withdrawn. It was particularly stipulated that the British should, with all convenient speed, withdraw their armies, garrisons, and fleets, from every port, place and harbour within the United States.

CANADIAN AFFAIRS FROM THE TREATY OF PARIS, IN 1783, TO THE
TREATY (CALLED JAY'S) OF LONDON, IN 1794.

1793. The British, however, did not withdraw their forces according to their engagements. They continued to hold Dutchman's Point and Point au Fer on Lake Champlain; Oswego and Niagara on Lake Ontario; Detroit and Michillimakinac on Lakes Erie and Huron, and some other positions of minor moment. The detection of

these places was borne with great patience and temper for several years, but at length became the subject of great uneasiness and discontent. It combined powerfully, with other causes, to render further negotiation necessary.

1794. Accordingly, another treaty was formed between the two countries in 1794. By this, an engagement was formally and solemnly made, that the British king should withdraw his troops and garrisons from all posts and places within the boundary lines assigned by the treaty of 1783. This evacuation was to take place before the 1st day of June, 1796, and measures in the meanwhile be taken in concert, by both parties, preparatory to the delivery. A variety of regulations were therein made for governing the commercial intercourse between the parties, on the continent of America. This treaty was executed at London on the 19th day of November, 1794. The parties were Chief Justice Jay and Lord Grenville.

The places thus held by the British were gradually given up to us. The consequence was, that they erected fortresses, posts and stations on their own side of the territorial line. They gave up Michillimackinac, but established a factory and garrison on the neighbouring island of St. Joseph. They withdrew from Detroit, but made themselves a place of strength at Malden. Fort Erie was opposed to Black Rock, Chippeway to Schlosser, and their Newark to our Niagara. In like manner Kingston, Isle Aux Noix, St. Johns, and other places, on and near their frontier were fortified and reinforced.

CANADIAN WAR OF 1812.

1812. On the 18th June, 1812, congress declared war against Great Britain, Ireland, and their dependencies. An army was raised and marched to the northward.

It was determined to invade Canada. Regular troops, volunteers and militia, were embodied for the purpose of entering and holding the provinces of the enemy.

This invasion was attempted in three different places. The first at Malden, which was attacked by the American troops from Detroit under General Hull; the second at Fort Erie and Queenstown, the former of which was threatened by General Smyth, and the latter occupied by the forces commanded by General Van Rensselaer; the third at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, by an army acting under Generals Bloomfield and Chandler.

The events of this campaign were in some respects unpleasant. The army at Detroit capitulated early in the campaign. The enemy took Michillimackinac and Chicago, and with them acquired the sovereignty of Michigan territory. The circumstances of these transac-

tions were such as to retard our operations materially. After a valiant commencement, our force was repulsed with considerable loss of killed and taken, at Queenstown; and the commanders at the other stations did not deem it expedient to make deep inroads into the enemy's country. Finally, in December, the troops generally went into winter quarters. But measures were immediately adopted for a more vigorous prosecution of the war, and no doubts can be entertained of their success.

REVIEW.

Narrative Poems on the Female Character in the various relations of life. By MARY RUSSEL MITFORD, author of "Christina," and a volume of "Miscellaneous Poems." vol. 1, 18mo. pp. 206. New-York, Eastburn, Kirk, & Co.

The present volume is the commencement of a series of narrative poems on the female character. It contains two tales, "Blanch," and "The Rival Sisters:" the first intended to illustrate the relations of friendship; the subject of the second is sisterly love. The story of Blanch is highly interesting and pathetic, and is conducted with more than common originality. The language of both poems is simple and rich, and the versification melodious. The principal characters in both are females, and Blanch and Mary seem to have been intended by the author as models of feminine excellence. Human perfection is rarely to be met with in this world; and if works of fiction were merely intended to paint men and manners as they actually exist, it should as rarely be introduced in them; but writers of such works may make their productions highly serviceable to the cause of morality, by painting men rather as they ought to be than as they are, and thereby afford models for imitation, with whose unmerited sufferings we can more strongly sympathise, and whose generous exertions will raise a more fervent emotion in our breasts, than the deepest distress of a doubtful character, or the occasional sallies of benevolence which burst from a villain. To call into action the better feelings of the heart, to excite our love and admiration for moral beauty, seems to have been the object of the author of these poems; and if her reader can turn away from the heroic friendship of Blanch, or the disinterested affection of Mary, and feel no string within him thrill in unison, it is not the fault of the hand that strikes—he must seek elsewhere for the cause.

Blanch is much the longest poem of the two, and consists of four cantoes. We shall attempt an analysis of its fable, in the course of

which we shall enrich our pages with some few of its numerous beauties.

Alfonzo, king of Castile, was destined by the wishes of his people to be the husband of the Princess Blanch of Aledo, a wealthy and virtuous lady, his cousin and heir expectant; but he chose to make Isabel, "a lowly orphan," the partner of his throne. Isabel was the kinswoman of Blanch, and the strictest friendship had always subsisted between them, and in the sequel displays itself in situations in which it is put to the severest test. Alfonso's preference to her cousin had not the power to raise any sentiments of envy or ill-will in the mind of Blanch: her friendship for the queen continued unabated, and was extended with equal ardour to her son Ferdinand, a beautiful and promising infant, whose attachment to Blanch was not less than that which he felt towards his mother. As might be expected, from her beauty, high birth, and virtues, Blanch was not destitute of admirers: among whom was the Count Merida, a haughty Murcian noble, but the favoured lover was the Granadian Caliph Almanzor, a lover not unworthy of such a mistress. The poem opens with a tournament in honour of the queen, on the first day of which the caliph, unknown to all but the princess, as the knight of the white rose, with blazon and device indicative of his love, had signalized himself by the overthrow of his adversary. In an interview between the caliph and the lady, after the sports of the day were concluded, he urges her to become his bride, but friendship is stronger than love: rather than be separated from her friend, she would resign a lover of whose merit she was sensible. This was carrying friendship a little too far; a different choice would not have been at all incompatible with the demonstrations of attachment towards her friend, which we afterwards find her making; still she does not leave the caliph to despair; the difference of religion was a more reasonable objection, and she urges that it would little comport with the delicacy of a christian princess to breathe the tainted air of his harem.

The next day Merida, inflamed with jealousy against his unknown rival, entered the lists with the caliph and was vanquished; to add to his vexation, he saw his conqueror kneel to the princess, and observed in her no unequivocal signs of corresponding regard: hatred usurped the place of love, and an opportunity of sating his revenge against the object of his former affections soon offered.

The following morning Blanch wandered with the young prince into a wood, where Ferdinand, by some accident, was pierced by an arrow; lying on the ground, supported by Blanch, and expiring in her arms, the boy was discovered by his father: here were no slight grounds for suspicion; and the circumstance that the arrow which slew

the child was Blanch's, tended to confirm it. Rage succeeds astonishment; the king will listen to no explanation, and Blanch is dragged to prison under sentence to die as a murderess. After lingering eight days in confinement she is led to the place of execution; there her life is spared; but the punishment which she is still to receive argues no diminution of severity in her judge; her estates are to be forfeited; she is to be driven from society; none shall repeat her name; the roof that shelters her shall fall; none shall succour her under penalty of death.

Amidst the general indignation excited by her supposed crime, and the terroure impressed by the cruel edict of the king, there were still some who thought her innocent, and dared to pity her.

" Vainly she gazed in every face,
A tear, a pitying look to trace;
Still in each guard's averted eye,
She read his stern fidelity;
Till a tall comely archer came,
And roughly seized the lovely dame,
And led her from the crowd;
' Away! the king abhors thy name!'
He cried, abrupt and loud.
But, with the word, he kindly prest,
Within her hand, his little store,
And whisper'd, ' Would that it were more!'
Sweet was the sound to Blanch's breast!
She would not take the proffer'd purse." &c.—CANTO 1. St. 43.

Blanch now fled to a church, and having fallen into a slumber, she was awoke by the entrance of a bridal train. The effect which her appearance caused on the joyful bride, and on a widow who was weeping over the grave of her husband, forms a fine contrast.

" The bride came deck'd in smiles and blushes;
But, when she caught the princess' eye,
Back to her heart her warm blood rushes,
And all her smiles of beauty fly!
She runs, as from a lion's wrath,
Trembling across the church-yard path;
But the deep sigh, the crystal tear,
They speak of pity more than fear:
' Heaven shield the wanderer on her way!
Carlos, I cannot wed to-day!' "

XLVIII.

Blanch left the porch, with sadden'd soul,
And to a new-made grave-mound stole,
Beneath a mournful cypress rais'd;
Till, leaning on a verdant knoll,
The big tears floated as she gaz'd.

The selfish but most natural thought,
 Where is my grave? her feelings taught.
 ' Ah! when I die, no decent stone
 Will tell, the once-lov'd Blanch lies here;
 No friends will wait on Blanch's bier;
 No earth be on my ashes thrown;
 But dogs my unblest corse shall tear,
 And vultures strip each whitening bone!'
 Dried were her tears: her spirit soar'd
 From death to its immortal birth!
 When groans of anguish near her pour'd,
 Recall'd her struggling thought to earth.

XLIX.

On the low grave, before her, knelt
 A form where beauty once had dwelt,
 Till chased by grief's rude hand away;
 Her garments told her cause of wo,
 And widow'd tears, that ceaseless flow,
 Proclaim'd the sorrow, passing show,
 The soul-felt grief that shuns the day.
 She saw not Blanch: her pensive glance
 Strayed not beyond the grave's expanse;
 Till sighs from other lips that broke,
 A partner in her anguish spoke:
 She look'd up, full of jealous wo,
 To guard her shrine from worshippers;
 Reluctant, any tear save her's
 Should honour him who slept below.
 But when she saw what mourner wept,
 Through her spare form faint shiverings crept;
 Touch'd by the maid with murder stain'd,
 She deem'd the hallow'd earth profan'd;
 And bent from impious touch to save,
 Stretch'd her weak frame along the grave;
 ' In mercy, hence!' at length she said,
 And the meek sufferer obey'd."—CANTO 1.

Blanch wandered to those domains of which she was formerly the mistress, and was for some time supported in her solitary retreat by her former vassals, who felt the strongest affection for her, were convinced of her innocence, and might have been roused by the slightest sign from her to vindicate her rights by force. At length she received from her friends an intimation of the approach of Merida, and that she must fly; she is directed to take a rustic dress which is furnished her, and throw the garments which she had before worn, into the river. She does so, and pursues her wandering for many days, avoiding towns and convents, and subsisting on the products of the fields and vineyards, or the charity of peasants.

Under the name of Rosaline, Blanch became an inmate of the

cottage of Beatrice, with whom and her infant daughter Agnes, she soon became a favourite. The following passages are a specimen of the kind of description in which Miss Mitford excels, and of the peculiar cast of sentiment in which she most delights.

" But Beatrice's laughing child
Most fondly loved the stranger mild;
With garlands still her hair would deck;
Still wind her arms around her neck;
Still to her lap at ev'ning creep;
Still on her bosom sink to sleep;
And wak'ning at her mother's touch,
Refuse to quit her downy couch,
Her clasp of love, still closer strain,
And weep and sob in childish pain;
Till Blanch would kiss those tears away,
Like dew-drops on the rose of May;
And Blanch's voice would sooth her woes,
And lull her to her calm repose.

XXI.

If in this world of breathing harm,
There lurk one universal charm,
One power, which to no clime confin'd,
Sways either sex and ev'ry mind;
Which cheers the monarch on his throne;
The slave beneath the torrid zone;
The soldier rough, the letter'd sage,
And careless youth and helpless age;
And all that live, and breathe, and move;
'Tis the pure kiss of infant love!
And Blanch's wo-chill'd heart would melt,
When Agnes' lip her forehead felt;
And Agnes' gentle grasp would lead
The pensive girl, o'er dale and mead;
Till, for the while, of grief beguil'd
Ev'n Agnes' self seem'd less a child."—CANTO 2.

One day, when Beatrice expected the return of her husband, who had for a long time been absent from home, Blanch and the child wandered from the cottage, and whilst the attention of the former was engaged in listening to the sound of a distant rebec, the latter escaped from her companion. Blanch followed in pursuit of the child, and saw her fall from a rock into the river below. The heroine dauntlessly plunged in to preserve the child, and prevented it from sinking, until they were both rescued by the fortunate arrival of Beatrice and her husband, who had, in the meantime, returned home. The husband recognises Blanch, and she recognises in him the soldier who had generously offered her assistance on the day she was exiled.

" Fernandez, that disastrous day,
Thou wert among my guard;
P

'Twas thou, who, while thou seem'dst to chide,
 To give me all thy pittance tried,
 And turn'd away, thy tears to hide :—
 Those tears, to guiltless suffering given,
 Hidden on earth, were seen in heaven,
 And there is thy reward !"—CANTO 2. St. 37.

She inquires of the soldier respecting Isabel. Fernandez replies, that her fate is still shrouded in mystery—whether confined in the palace, or fled to a convent, or led captive by Almanzor, (for such are the reports) is uncertain. Blanch is prevented from returning to the cot for fear of being discovered by two of Fernandez' comrades, who then happened to be there, and she again resumes her wanderings to seek the cell of a hermit, "deep in the mountain wilds." The hermit and his cell are finely described ; a storm arises, and whilst he is marking "the lightning's form," he hears a shriek—

"He lingered not ; but firm as youth,
 The rocky pathway trod,
 Though pour'd the rain so fast ; in sooth,
 The chamois, sleeping on the sod,
 Scarce to escape the hunter's snare,
 On such a night had left his lair.
 But the kind heart that pity warms
 Is proof against the fiercest storms.
 He comes again : the rocky stairs
 He treads—O richly laden !
 Within his arms a form he bears ;
 'Tis she ! the royal maiden !"—CANTO 2. St. 47.

Leaving the cell, she proceeds, in company with the hermit, to a convent, resolved to perform her noviciate and take the veil, and on her arrival there, re-assumes the name of Rosaline. Her feelings on her approach to the convent are thus described :

"Pale, wan, from bed of sickness risen,
 She gaz'd on her eternal prison :
 But not one shivering doubt repress'd
 The voice within that promised rest ;
 No ling'ring hope, with earthly chain,
 Drew her to the stern world again.
 If ever on her cheerless track
 Too busy mem'ry forc'd her back ;
 If ever restless fancy drew
 Her hours to come in shadowy view ;
 No sun-shine gilt her backward day,
 No hope illum'd her onward way,
 The past, the future, she would fly,
 Her only selfish wish, to die !
 A tear, a sigh, the wish represses ;
 Friendship's the tear, the sigh was Love's."—CANTO 3. St. 3.

She is received into the convent, and on disclosing "her piteous

tale," she is assured of protection : "The confessor, Francisco mild," declares ;

" ——— nor wealth, nor power,
Shall tear her from this hallowed bower ;
Nor torture keen, nor golden shower,
Shall force me to betray."

Beloved by the whole sisterhood, Blanch remained in this calm solitude, gradually fading away.

" So month's pass'd on with that poor maid,
And every month her strength decay'd ;
Yet still increasing peace she felt :
'Twas winter now ; and oft she said,
' My soul, ere spring-flowers bloom and fade,
Will leave this narrow belt.'
One only hope, one only care,
Awoke her bosom's swell ;
That hope an angel well might share—
Need I its tender aim declare !—
That care was Isabel.—CANRO 3. St. 8.

A stranger, escaped from Moorish captivity, arrives at the convent and relates his story, and tells of a captive whose apartment was over the garden in which he laboured, and to whose melancholy and unvaried lay he had listened. The song was of Blanch and Ferdinand, and the fatal accident which consigned one to death and the other to exile. Blanch heard the tale, and in the captive lady acknowledged her beloved Isabel ; in company with Francisco she privately leaves the convent and goes in quest of her friend. The scene now changes to the alhambra, and we are again introduced to Isabel, whom her misfortunes had crazed, in the following affecting passage.

" So leave we now the convent cell,
Of that most wretched dame to tell,
Who, in th' alhambra tower,
Her tottering reason sang away,
Or seemed with her dead boy to play,
Hugging the form she call'd his clay,
Through many a weary hour :
Unlearning every sense but care,
Lost to all feeling save despair.
One morn, at her accustom'd station,
The lovely maniac sung :
And rocking slow in faint vibration,
Like a fond careful nurse she swung.
Within her arms, in drapery wrapt,
An alabaster vase she lapp'd,
And fancied it her son !
She shudder'd as the marble cold
Struck to her heart through every fold.

But clasp'd it tighter in her hold,
Still chanting her sad death-like moan."—CANTO 3. St. 14.

Almanzor, too, has his share of sorrow ; Blanch is ever present to his thoughts, and her supposed loss overwhelms him with grief.

The confessor, with Blanch disguised as a page, arrive at the caliph's palace. We are sorry that Miss Mitford has condescended to use so hackneyed an expedient as that of putting her heroine in male attire, to prevent her being discovered. It little comports with the purity of Blanch's character, thus to expose her person, and subject her feelings to be wounded by the ribaldry which, under such a garb, she must hear, and the situations in which it might place her. Such a female, as Blanch is described to be, could never so act the part of a man, so look and speak like one, as not to be in danger of having her sex suspected. The frequency of this incident, in works of fiction, may, perhaps, furnish an excuse for overlooking its impropriety ; but we are compelled to wish that the author had provided some other disguise, under which the princess might have passed unknown.

Blanch and the caliph meet, and he informs her by what chance Isabel had come into his power. On the day when Ferdinand was killed he came disguised to the court, and soon learnt the cause of the confusion which he saw there, but harboured no doubt of Blanch's innocence. Lingerin in the woods, at the close of twilight, he met the frantic queen, and caught enough from her to clear up the mystery ; but knowing that his relation would not be received, and determined on preserving Blanch's life, he led Isabel away captive, and sent a message to Alfonzo, demanding that Blanch should be restored to liberty, and threatening that in case her blood were spilt, Isabel should be put to death. Hence it was that her life was spared ; Isabel's madness left her, but when she heard of Blanch's supposed death it returned. The caliph now urges his suit to Blanch, but in vain ; she remains determined to fulfil the vow she had made, to dedicate herself to God.

" In war, Almanzor stood enroll'd
The boldest chief, where all were bold :
A hero's soul in hero's mould ;
His arm the bravest fled :
But never was his courage prov'd
Till now that for the maid he lov'd,
Himself he vanquished.
He saw her sinking at his side ;
' One parting kiss of love !' he cried ;
' One kiss may be forgiven !
In my vain passion deified,
Queen of my heart, my joy, my pride.
Thou diest a spotless virgin bride,

To live a saint in heaven !
 He clasp'd her to his throbbing heart,
 ' Bless thee, my best and dearest part,
 Bless thee for ever !'
 He fled : that look of woe suppress'd,
 In the fair mourner's eye shall rest ;
 And from her ear, and from her breast,
 No sound those words shall sever :
 And yet, at first, as if unheard
 That stifled groan, that last low word,
 She sate with calm and tearless eye,
 And bending form, and gentle sigh ;
 And shook the ringlets from her ear,
 With patient smile his voice to hear,
 As if her lover still were near."—CANTO 3. St. 41.

Heli, the caliph's friend, now attends to lead her to Isabel. He acquaints her that Merida would that day arrive, sent by Alfonso to crave his queen or bear defiance to the caliph, who, for Blanch's sake, would release her. They entered the apartment of Isabel and Blanch accosted her. It would far exceed our moderate limits to extract all the beautiful passages of this poem, but we cannot refrain from presenting our reader with the meeting of these two tender friends, who had been so long and so cruelly separated,

" ——— ' and is it thou, my friend,
 My cousin Isabel !
 And do I press thee to my heart,
 And does no throbbing, feeling dart,
 Of kindred love to tell !'

XLVI.

Then forth the lovely maniac rush'd ;
 Her eye was wild, her cheek was flush'd ;
 But on the maid that eye was fix'd,
 With doubting hope and sadness mix'd.
 She stood as one who, scarce awake,
 At vision'd spectres seems to shake ;
 Quakes at each thought ; starts at each sound ;
 Feels each accustom'd object round ;
 Bewilder'd shrinks from day's bright beam ;
 And trembling asks was it a dream ?
 She dragg'd Blanch to the casement bright,
 Held her at arm's length in the light,
 And gaz'd upon her faded charms ;
 Till reason's dawn began to break :
 And with one shrill, heart-piercing shriek,
 She fell in Blanch's arms."—CANTO 3. St. 45, 46.

The next morning they depart for Murcia ; but not until Blanch had obtained a solemn vow from her friend, never to attempt her justification, and never to mention her name. Riding by the side of Francisco, and still disguised as a boy, she follows in the train of the

queen. The friends must part; they met, as they supposed, for the last time, before they should be separated for ever; but their meeting did not escape unmarked by Merida, who thus became possessed of the power to perpetrate further mischief.

Isabel is restored to her husband; she saw before her the scene of that mischance which had produced so much misery; the recollection of her bleeding child rushed upon her mind, and she shrunk from Alfonzo's hand. The king endeavoured to repress her sorrow; he was beginning to speak of revenge and the murderess: Isabel uttered a scream and fainted. This was a source of astonishment to the king: he inquired of Merida for an explanation, and what he knew whilst on their journey, respecting the queen. Merida related what he had seen and heard of the interview between Isabel and the page, their tender words, their parting kiss; circumstances calculated to excite more than suspicion. The king, well he might, considered them as proofs. He followed his wife to the tomb of Ferdinand, and demanded the name of the page; she asserts her innocence, but, true to friendship, and faithful to her vow, she chooses rather to die than betray the friend who had sacrificed so much for her. It was decreed that her cause should be tried by combat: if no knight appeared within twenty days to vindicate her innocence against Merida, or if the count vanquished in the contest, she should die.

The time elapsed; none appeared to defend the cause of Isabel. The lists were prepared, and Merida entered them. Twice had the bugle sounded, and no champion came. At the third blast, a knight flew o'er the bounds and took up the gantlet: it was the conqueror in the tournament, the knight of the white rose, the gallant Almanzor. The combatants were already prepared for the shock, when suddenly the page rushed within the barrier. Blanch discovers herself; the king is convinced of his lady's innocence, but dooms her generous friend to death. The queen, although reminded of her vow, resolves to break it, and avows herself the murderess. A pause ensued which was first broken by the king:

"———" by what sad chance,
My wife—" O when the murdering lance
Was lifted to her blameless heart,
Who brav'd for me death's venom'd dart,
Thou didst not pause to ask—What chance!"

On that fatal day she had followed Blanch and Ferdinand into the wood, and saw a wolf pursue the child: with trembling hands and wild with terrour, she drew a bow, and the arrow pierced her son. "'Twas Blanch's bow! 'Twas Blanch's dart!" Having thus been cleared from the imputation of a crime, and after she had seen her sovereign suing at her feet for forgiveness, Blanch sunk exhausted

with toil. Her frame and health, enfeebled by the numerous trials she had undergone, supported her through the last generous effort in the cause of friendship, and then failed her for ever. The care and tenderness of a lover and a friend were of no avail. Her death was that of a saint, and in her last moments her prayers were offered for her bitter foe, the Count Merida. We could wish to have found a place for the whole of this affecting scene; still we will insert the concluding stanza.

“ Almanzor, kneeling by her side,
His agony in vain would hide:
Ev'n Don Alfonso's sterner grief,
Found in unwonted tears relief.
Blanch slowly turn'd her from the light,
As if to shun that melting sight;
And threw her arm across her face,
And none her dying look might trace,
None watch her closing eye:
An awful stillness fill'd the place,
Unbroken by a sigh:
Till Isabel, sooth'd by her tears,
For new-born hope resign'd her fears,
' Sweet maid, how tranquil is her sleep!
I cannot hear her breath!’
She rose, to Blanch's couch to creep:
It was the sleep of death:”—CANTO 4. St. 46.

The great excellence of Miss Mitford's poetry consists in simple pathos. We do not meet in this poem with delineations of violent passion, with strongly marked characters, or bold and imposing situations; but all is softness and tenderness. The author seems to shrink from portraying any thing except what is gentle and virtuous; hence there is an entire want of contrast between the principal personages of the poem; Blanch, Isabel, and Almanzor, are all excellent and virtuous alike, with no alloy of weakness, no little mark of folly by which to distinguish them. They are alike generous and disinterested; and if one makes greater sacrifices for the sake of friendship, it is rather from want of opportunity than want of inclination in the others. In most instances we should consider this uniformity as a defect. A very short poem may need no other support than tenderness and pathos: but tenderness will cease to sooth, and pathos to excite sensibility, when they are too long continued. But let the tone be sometimes varied; let the boisterous succeed the gentle, and the harsh be intermingled with the harmonious, and we shall return to quiet and harmony with fresh delight. In the poem of *Blanch*, we cannot avoid regretting that the author had not made more use of contrast. Yet though she is uniform, it is not a monotonous uniformity: she has conducted her fable with so much skill, and

takes such strong hold on the feelings of the reader, that if we do regret the absence of something, we are still highly gratified with what we have.

It will be seen, by the extracts we have given, that in *Blanch*, Miss Mitford has adopted the loose metre of Walter Scott and his numerous admirers. This kind of metre is peculiarly advantageous for him who would compose his two hundred verses "*stans pede in uno*;" but the little regard which it requires to the nicety of the rhyme; the unbounded license which it gives, or at least which those who use it assume, of introducing unnecessary words, as mere expletives to draw out a line to its due length, though wonderfully conducive to the convenience of the writer, renders this kind of composition so very diffuse as, in a great measure, to banish from it that pointed expression and concentration of thought, without which poetry can be neither strong or impressive. It is better adapted for the description of the scenes in which Miss Mitford delights, and to convey the sentiments with which, from her writings, we should suppose the author was fraught, than for the representation of sublime imagery or violent passion; yet, that it is capable of such representation, Mr. Scott has, in many instances, demonstrated. Strong as our objections are to this species of metre, we cannot deny Miss Mitford the credit of having used it with success; that in a more regular versification her success would be greater, she has herself shown us, as witness the second poem in this volume.

The Rival Sisters is written in the stanza of Spencer. Its story is extremely simple, and though serious, has not the deep tragic cast of *Blanch*, or its heart-rending distress. Mary and Grace are the rival sisters; Mary had been bred, and always lived, in a cottage. She was mild, affectionate, and yielding. Grace, the younger sister, was, by a wealthy aunt, early removed from her mother's cot, and brought up in the pomp of opulence; her character was widely different from that of her sister; proud, imperious, and unbending. Sir Walter Mowbray became enamoured of Mary; the day for their union was appointed; Grace came to attend her sister's marriage, and artfully caught the affections of the fickle knight, who still could not but admire the virtues of her whom he had abandoned, and the undiminished affection with which she conducted herself towards her worthless sister. But Mary found in Lord Claremont a more constant lover. Mowbray chose Grace for her beauty, and their married life was a scene of contention. Claremont chose Mary for her worth, and their wedlock produced undiminished happiness. This tale bears the same general character as the former, and with much less plot, is, in our opinion, more highly finished.

Mary is thus described, when first seen by Claremont, as she is sitting at the door of her cot; he is charmed with her appearance, and wonders in what the charm consists.

" It was not beauty : for, in very truth,
No symmetry of features deck'd the maid.
Was it the vivid blush of early youth ;
The Hebe lip where changeful dimples play'd ;
The flaxen locks whose crisped ringlets stray'd
O'er the blue dove-like eyes serene and mild ;
The rose-tipp'd fingers that her toil betray'd ;
The rounded form, luxuriantly wild,
Of woman's graces full :—the face so like a child ?

VII.

Or was it the expression, calm and even,
Which tells of blest inhabitants within ;
A look as tranquil as the summer heaven ;
A smile that cannot light the face of sin ;
A sweetness so composed that passion's din
Its fair unruffled brow has never mov'd ;
Beauty, not of the features nor the skin,
But of the soul ;—and loveliness best prov'd
By one unerring test—no sooner seen than lov'd ?—CANTO I.

Grace is thus described, and her appearance contrasted with that of her sister.

" Her figure was majestic, as the storm
That broods upon the mountain ;—and her face,
Dazzlingly fair and bright and uniform,
As the refulgent sun 'mid cloudless space,
When in the summer noon he runs his ardent race.

XIII.

Yet in those faultless features and that shape,
So slender, yet so round, a varying line,
A look which, scarcely seen, seems to escape,
Likeness which all can trace and none define,
Seem'd in its bonds the cottage maids to twine.
Though the majestic fair one's golden hair
Broke from the comb that would its pride confine ;
Though as her breast, her flowing robe was fair,
And each nice fold betray'd the toilet's pleasing care ;

XIV.

Full hard it were the secret source to trace
Of that resemblance undefinable :
For not more different was the blooming face
Where smiling innocence had fix'd her cell,
From that where grandeur rode in beauty's shell ;
Than the luxuriant figure round and low,
Which like a chubby babe's in dimples fell,
From that, whose towering stature seem'd to grow
With every sudden turn, and every gesture slow.

XV.

And still more different seem'd the breathing soul,
 Which in the stranger maid's fine features spoke :
 The self admiring glance uncheck'd that stole ;
 The smile of proud contempt ; the frown that broke
 Her snowy brow, with beauty-killing stroke ;
 The cheek, now pale, now flush'd with ardent glee,
 As bent to envy's or to passion's yoke ;
 All seem'd to say, in this fair creature see,
 How bright, yet how unlovely, beauty's form may be !

CANTO I.

Miss Mitford has promised to complete the series of poems, and we are to have, in the next volume, a tale in the heroic couplet of Pope and Dryden, the legitimate form of English poetry. From the present specimen, unless future exertions should be remitted by past success, we have no reason to fear that succeeding efforts will be less happy than those which we have just had under consideration.

Before we dismiss the present subject, we must, in justice to Miss Mitford, observe, that she has added no notes to her poems. We know many writers whose chief merit consists in these clumsy appendages of quotation and anecdote. Notes, like a strong foundation to a flimsy superstructure, frequently serve to support that which is incapable of supporting itself. Miss Mitford, conscious, we presume, of her own powers, has rejected their awkward assistance.



Memoirs of the Rev. JOHN RODGERS, D. D. late pastor of the Wall-street and Brick Churches in the city of New-York. By SAMUEL MILLER, D. D. surviving pastor of the church in Wall-street.—New-York, Whiting & Watson. 1813. 8vo. pp. 432.

The object of these memoirs is to portray a character no otherwise remarkable than as possessing exemplary piety and worth ; the tenour of whose life was little diversified, and furnishes but few materials for his biographer. While the author admits that the life of such a man ought not to be unnecessarily protruded upon the public, he very justly observes, "that whenever a case occurs in which a life has "been marked with respectable talents, eminent piety, exemplary "diligence, and extensive usefulness, such a life, if survivors are disposed to profit by the contemplation of it, ought not to be withheld from them." The life of Doctor Rodgers will certainly be most interesting to those who belong to the same denomination which he did, and it is for them that the reverend author seems principally to have intended his book. But independent of its utility as holding

up a pattern for "respectful imitation," the pertinent facts which are introduced in relation to the provincial state of this country, and its ecclesiastical history, and the frequent notices which are taken of contemporary characters, will render this work interesting to those who read it for the purpose of obtaining historical information alone.

John Rodgers was born in the town of Boston, in Massachusetts, the 5th of August, 1727. His parents were originally from Ireland, and about a year after his birth they removed to Philadelphia. At an early age he became sensible of the importance of religion, and the serious impressions which he had imbibed, were not a little strengthened by his frequent attendance on the preaching of the celebrated Whitefield. From this period, when he was little more than twelve years old, he formed the resolution to devote himself to the ministry, for which purpose he commenced the study of the languages. He was never at college, but completed his preparatory education at an academy of high reputation at Fog's Manor, in Chester county, Pennsylvania, under the care of the Rev. Mr. Samuel Blair. Among his fellow students were a number of gentlemen who afterwards became distinguished clergymen; and it was his peculiar good fortune to have studied under, and associated with, some of the most eminent divines that America ever produced, who yielded neither in piety or learning to their successors. Respecting their learning the following opinion is expressed by the author, which, as far as our own information extends, we believe to be just; and the superior means which he must necessarily possess, of becoming conversant with the subject, put it beyond a question.

"Many persons are apt to suppose that the race of divines who flourished in our country seventy or eighty years ago, though pious and excellent men, had a very scanty supply of books, and in many cases a still more scanty education, compared with the divines of later years, and especially of the present day. This opinion is not only erroneous, but grossly so. Those venerable fathers of the American Church were more deeply learned than most of their sons. They read more, and thought more, than we are ready to imagine. The greater part of the books of ancient learning, and ponderous erudition, which are now to be found on this side of the Atlantic, were imported, and studied by those great and good men. Original works are actually in fewer hands, in our day, compared with the number of readers, than in theirs. They read solidly and deeply: we hurry over *compendes* and *indexes*. They studied systematically as well as extensively; our reading is more desultory, as well as more superficial. We have more of the *belles lettres* polish; but as biblical critics, and as profound theologians, we must undoubtedly yield to them the palm of excellence." P. 21, 22.

Not long after Mr. Rodgers had gone through his theological studies, and obtained a license, he accompanied Mr. Davies, afterwards president of New-Jersey college, to Virginia. The church of England had at that time a legal establishment in Virginia, and its authority had been, at different times, supported by laws which savoured not a

little of persecution. In 1618 a law was passed in the province which enacted that "every person should go to church on Sundays "and holy-days, or lie neck and heels that night, and be a slave to "the colony the following week." For the second offence he was to be a slave for a month, and for the third a year and a day. By a law passed in 1642, no minister was permitted to officiate who had not produced to the governour a testimonial of his having been ordained by a bishop in England, and who had not, at the same time, subscribed to be conformable to the orders and constitutions of the church of England. If any person offended against this act, the governour and council were empowered to suspend and silence him, and if he continued contumacious, they might compel him to depart the country by the first conveyance. Several of these laws were either repealed or mitigated, but they continued severe until the revolution. "We are accustomed," says Dr. Miller, "to smile at what are called the "*blue laws* of Connecticut; but it would be difficult to find any thing "in them equal to the first act above mentioned"—that of 1618.

It was necessary, at the time that Mr. Rodgers visited Virginia, for dissenting preachers to obtain a license to preach, according to the provisions of the English toleration act, which had vested the power of granting licenses in the county courts, but of which they had been divested, under a pretended claim of prerogative, by the general court; but the real motive was, the jealousy of the established clergy, on account of the increase of the presbyterians. Mr. Davies obtained the necessary license, as some pledge for his admission had been, on a former visit to Virginia, inadvertently given him, which could not easily be revoked. But it was refused to Mr. Rodgers; notwithstanding he demanded it as a right, to which he was entitled by law, and to obtain which he presented a memorial to the court. When the memorial was read, a worthy representative of justice, put an end to all discussion by declaring publicly and with warmth, "we *have* Mr. Rodgers out, and we are determined to *keep* him out!" And in the true spirit of intolerance "he was forbidden, "in the most peremptory manner, to preach within the colony, under "the penalty of a fine of £500, and a year's imprisonment, without "bail or mainprize."

In consequence of these proceedings, Mr. Rodgers quitted Virginia, and after remaining some months in Maryland, took up his residence in the year 1749, in the village of St. George's, in the province of Delaware, as minister of the presbyterian congregation in that place. In the year 1765, he received a call from the presbyterian church in the city of New-York, which he accepted, having some years before, owing to particular circumstances, rejected a call from the same place.

At this period of his work, Dr. Miller gives a brief history of the presbyterian church in New-York, until the time that the subject of his memoirs became its pastor. Its commencement was small, and during the time that Lord Cornbury was governour, it met with treatment from him very little different from persecution. At length, having increased in strength and numbers, in the year 1720, application was made to the council for a charter of incorporation, which was frustrated by the interference of the vestry of Trinity Church. A short time after this, we find dissensions arising among those members of the church who had been accustomed to the Scotch form of presbyterianism, and those who were better pleased with the discipline of the presbyterian and congregational churches of South Britain, which induced the latter to secede and form a separate congregation. They invited the celebrated Jonathan Edwards, then a young man, to become their minister, who continued with them a few months, but difficulties arising, he judged it expedient to leave them. After this division was healed, new difficulties sprung up from the adoption of Watts's version of the psalms, instead of Rouse's, or the "old Scotch version," which had been used until then. So trivial are frequently the causes of dissention! We are no great admirers of Dr. Watts's poetry, but his is certainly the most poetical English version of the psalms of David, and we cannot but approve the taste of those who gave it the preference. Hence another secession which has continued until this day; a separate congregation was formed, and Dr. John Mason was invited from Scotland to become their minister.

The same illiberal and unjustifiable opposition continued to be made by the episcopal church to every successive application for a charter, which, as some bequests had been made to the church for charitable uses, was now peculiarly desirable. Hopeless of ever obtaining their object from the council, it was resolved, in the year 1766, to petition the king for a charter. A petition was accordingly presented to the king, and was referred to the board of trade, the president of which wrote to the governour of the province to know whether the facts stated in the petition were true. After the council in New-York had interposed every possible delay, they were obliged to report that the facts stated were true. This answer was forwarded to the president of the board of trade; but when the business again came up before the board, the bishop of London twice appeared before them, and zealously opposed the application, in consequence of which it was rejected. Again, in the year 1774, an application was made through governour Tryon, to the king and council, and by his exertions an order was obtained for granting the charter, but was rendered ineffectual by the obstinacy of the attorney of

the province, who would neither give up the draft of the charter which had been placed in his hands to report upon, or make the report required of him. This part of Dr. Miller's work does not owe its value to the importance of the facts related; but in some points of view it is highly deserving of attention. In the petty bickerings and warm disputes between the members of a small congregation, we see on a contracted scale, but with less disguise, and in its purest state, a picture of that innate love of party distinction, which, when further extended, distracts whole nations; and although in its progress it may embrace objects of real moment, will as frequently set mankind quarrelling on points of equal value with the following, which was made a subject of complaint by some of the members of the presbyterian church, against their ministers, "that they made the introductory prayer, in public worship, reading the scriptures, and giving out the first psalm, from the clerk's desk instead of the pulpit."

Besides the local contention between the episcopalians and presbyterians, which we have before alluded to, a controversy of general importance arose between them about the year 1766, and which continued to agitate their minds, until every minor subject was swallowed up in the prospect of an approaching revolution. This was no less than an attempt to procure the establishment of diocesan bishops in this country. The measure was strongly opposed by the whole body of dissenters, and indeed by many of the episcopalians. If this measure had had no other object than the introduction of a system of church government, which could only affect members of a particular denomination, without extending in its consequences to the rest of the community, their opposition would have been illiberal, and their interference indecorous. But their minds were alive to every thing which had the least appearance of infringing their civil or religious liberty. It was evident to them that the bishops intended would not be the mere spiritual heads of a church, but would assume and exercise the civil and judicial powers belonging to those of their order in the mother country. "We all know," says the convention formed of delegates from the synod of the presbyterian church, and from the several associations of Connecticut, "the jealousy of the bishops in England concerning their own power and dignity suffering by the example of such a limited bishop in America, and we also know the force of a British act of parliament, and have reason to dread the establishment of bishop's courts among us. Should they claim the right of holding these courts, and of exercising the powers belonging to their office by the common law of England, (which is esteemed the birthright of a British subject,) we could have no counterbalance to this enormous power in our colonies, where we have no

"nobility or proper courts to check the dangerous exertions of their authority, and when our governours or judges may be the needy dependants of a prime minister, and therefore afraid to disoblige a person who is sure of being supported by the whole bench of bishops in England." P. 191. This was placing the subject in the only proper light. Mr. Rodgers was an active member of this convention.

In the year 1768 he had the degree of doctor of divinity conferred upon him by the university of Edinburgh. It was obtained at the suggestion of Mr. Whitefield to Dr. Franklin, who applied to Dr. Robertson, the principal of the university, for that purpose.

At the commencement of the revolutionary war Dr. Rodgers removed from New-York, and resided in different parts of the states of New-York, Connecticut, and New-Jersey, exerting himself wherever he went for the promotion of religion, and did not return to the city until after it was evacuated by the British troops, in 1783. Like most others of his brethren, he was a stanch friend to the American cause, and the regard with which he was viewed by the man who was the chief human means of bringing our struggle for freedom to a happy issue, is a circumstance redounding to his honour. Every incident connected with that illustrious character is deserving of notice; the mere mention of his name we deem sufficient apology for introducing the following passage.

"On the 14th day of April, in that year, General Washington reached New-York, and took possession of it for its defence. Soon after his arrival, Dr. Rodgers, in company with other friends of the American cause, waited on the general to pay him his respects. The general received him with pointed attention; and when he was about to retire, followed him to the door and observed, that his name had been mentioned to him in Philadelphia, which he had just left, as a gentleman whose fidelity to the interest and liberties of the country might be relied on, and who might be capable of giving him important information: and added, 'May I take the liberty, sir, to apply to you, with this view, whenever circumstances may render it desirable?' The doctor, after assuring him of the readiness and pleasure with which he should render him, in the cause in which he was engaged, any service in his power, took his leave. It is not improper to add, that the General actually did consult the doctor, on several occasions afterwards, concerning certain parts of the public service, and, particularly in one case, received from him important information. A number of letters passed between them, some of which were found among the doctor's papers after his decease." P. 208, 209.

At the time the army was disbanded, Dr. Rodgers was desirous that each of the soldiers should be presented with a copy of the bible, and endeavoured to interest many leading characters in this measure, among whom was the commander in chief.

"The following answer to the Doctor's letter, while it serves to assign one of the reasons why his pious plan did not succeed will also furnish another testimony to the uniform dignity and greatness of the wonderful man by whom it was written.

Head Quarters, 11th June, 1783.

" Dear sir,

" I accept, with much pleasure, your kind congratulations on the happy event of peace, with the establishment of our liberties and independence.

" Glorious indeed has been our contest: glorious, if we consider the prize for which we have contended, and glorious in its issue. But in the midst of our joys I hope we shall not forget, that to Divine Providence is to be ascribed the glory and the praise.

" Your proposition respecting Mr. Aitkin's Bible, would have been particularly noticed by me, had it been suggested in season. But the late resolution of congress for discharging part of the army, taking off near two thirds of our numbers, it is now too late to make the attempt. It would have pleased me well, if congress had been pleased to make such an important present to the brave fellows who have done so much for the security of their country's rights and establishment.

" I hope it will not be long before you will be able to go quietly to New-York. Some patience, however, will yet be necessary. But patience is a noble virtue, and, when rightly exercised, does not fail of its reward.

" With much regard and esteem,

" I am, dear Doctor,

" Your most obedient servant,

" Go. WASHINGTON."

" P. S. Be so good as to inform me whether mrs. Thompson is living with you or gone into New-York? Before I retire from service, it is my wish to render her what is owing to her*.

" Rev. Doctor Rodgers.

" G. W." P. 231—3.

It may well be supposed that the happy termination of the revolution, and the frequent discussion which it had occasioned of the principles of civil and religious liberty, would have had the effect of abating, at least for a time, the feelings of acrimony which, as we have seen, had existed between the two most prevailing sects in this country. That such was the case, we have a very honourable instance related by Dr. Miller. The presbyterian churches had been greatly injured during the course of the war by the ravages of the British soldiery: so much so as to be unfit for the reception of their congregations, until they had undergone repairs which must necessarily occupy some time. "In this extremity," says Dr. Miller, "the vestry of trinity church, unsolicited, and with a politeness which did them honour, made an offer of St. George's and St. Paul's churches to be used by the congregation alternately, until one of their own churches could be repaired. This offer was gratefully accepted." P. 244.

From this period until his death, Dr. Rodgers continued uninterruptedly to reside in the city of New-York. He died on the 7th of May, 1811, in the 84th year of his age. His character is thus summed up by the author of these memoirs.

* This postscript, though irrelative to the main subjects of the letter, is retained, not only as another example of the scrupulous justice of the illustrious writer; but also to show that he had a mind which, while it grasped great objects, was capable of attending to minute details.

"He was not without his infirmities; but they were spots in a luminary of full orb'd excellence; and no one was more ready than himself to acknowledge, that he was a miserable sinner, and that his proper place was at the footstool of Divine mercy. 'Take him for all in all,' the American church has not often seen his like; and will not, it is probable, speedily or often 'look upon his like again.' In vigorous and original powers of mind, a number have exceeded him. In profound and various learning, he had many superiours. In those brilliant qualities, which excite the admiration of men, and which are much better fitted to adorn than to enrich, pre-eminence is not claimed for him. But in that happy assemblage of practical qualities, both of the head and the heart, which go to form the respectable man; the correct and polished gentleman; the firm friend; the benevolent citizen; the spotless and exemplary christian; the pious, dignified, and venerable ambassador of Christ; the faithful pastor; the active, zealous, persevering, unwearyed labourer in the vineyard of his Lord; it is no disparagement to eminent worth to say, that he was scarcely equalled, and certainly never exceeded, by any of his contemporaries."

The volume concludes with a sermon delivered by Dr. Miller, on the occasion of the death of the subject of his memoir.

To say of an American author that the language he writes in is ENGLISH, is no slight praise; but we feel sensible that no encomiums on his manner or style will be as acceptable to the reverend biographer as the assurance that he has rendered his work subservient to the interests of virtue and religion.

NOTICE OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Messrs. Eastburn, Kirk, & Co. New-York, have published *Essays on the superstitions of the Highlanders of Scotland*: to which are added, *Translations from the Gaelic*; and letters connected with those formerly published. Two volumes in one. By Mrs. GRANT, of Laggan, author of "*Letters from the Mountains*."

We shall give a review of this interesting work in our next.

Mr. Joseph Delaplaine, of Philadelphia, has made arrangements for publishing portraits of eminent persons of our country, to be accompanied by biographical sketches, and has secured the aid of several artists of the first talents.

FINE ARTS.

PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY OF THE FINE ARTS.

In the first number of the *Monthly Recorder* it was asserted that the American Academy of Arts, established at New-York in 1801, was the first institution of the kind attempted in our country; we

should have said *established*, for, a previous *attempt* had been made in Philadelphia as early as 1795. At that period Mr. Charles W. Peale, a gentleman who has done much for the arts in America, and who is now the oldest artist living in the U. S., in conjunction with Mr. William Rush, the first man who carried the art of sculpture, in our country, beyond a common ship's head, proposed the establishment of an American academy of fine arts. The artists then in Philadelphia, as well foreign as native, and some amateurs, received the proposal with enthusiasm; meetings were held at the house of Mr. Peale, they formed themselves into a society and denominated it the *Columbianum*. Here was a creation, "a local habitation and a name." They proceeded to the organization of a school for the study of the living figure, appointed a professor who delivered lectures on anatomy, and actually began to draw from the life. But the ambition of doing too much, or the ambition of some individual to become a leader, created a schism in a few months; the foreign artists, among whom was the celebrated *Ceracchi*, who has left us inestimable busts in marble of several heroes of our revolution and fathers of our civil institutions, separated themselves from the original projectors of the *Columbianum*, and, after one exhibition in the senate chamber of the State-House, it died a sudden and violent death.

In 1805, Francis Hopkinson, Esq. stimulated by a view of the casts executed in Paris after the antique, which were in the possession of the New-York Academy, and by his own taste and patriotism, proposed to several gentlemen of Philadelphia the establishment of a similar institution. They undertook it with zeal, and executed it with promptitude. An elegant and appropriate building was erected, while the necessary measures for procuring plaster casts from Europe were pursued, and in April, 1807, the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts was opened. On this occasion an address was delivered by Mr. Clymer, the president of the institution. At first, statues and busts alone were thought of for exhibition; but that accomplished gentleman and artist, Mr. Robert Fulton, of New-York, to whom the world owes the completion of the invaluable steam-boat invention, having purchased a portion of Alderman Boydel's great Shakspeare-Gallery, and other excellent European paintings, placed them with the Pennsylvania academicians, for their use and the public gratification. The great attention which these pictures excited, suggested the idea of establishing annual exhibitions for the advantage of the academy and the improvement of public taste.

In May, 1810, a number of artists and amateurs of Philadelphia formed an association, which they denominated "The Society of Artists of the United States." They drew up a constitution which

was signed by sixty persons. They were invited by the members of the Pennsylvania Academy, to hold their meetings in the building erected by those gentlemen, and they accepted the invitation. In six months the society increased to upwards of one hundred, and they proposed an union with the academy, so as to form but one institution; this, however, was found impracticable at the time, and shortly after an arrangement was made, and a written agreement entered into, and signed by five members of each institution, by which, for a consideration of 2,000 dollars, proposed as the wish of the society, the members of the society became entitled to "free admission to the academy in like manner with the members thereof;" to the right of using the specimens of art; to "the right of making their annual exhibition in the rooms of the academy for six weeks; during which time the academy also to be open to the inspection of the visitors of the exhibition," and to the most commodious rooms and the use of the property generally for the schools of the society.

On the 6th of May, 1811, the first annual exhibition of the *Society of Artists of the United States*, in conjunction with the directors of the academy, was opened to the public; previously to which an oration was delivered by F. Hopkinson, Esq. The receipts of the exhibition during the stated period of six weeks, amounted to 1360 dollars. After which, by concurrence of the two associations, the exhibition was continued one week longer, for the benefit of the sufferers by fire in Newburyport, Massachusetts—410 dollars was received, and appropriated to this purpose.

On the 8th of May, 1811, an oration was delivered *before the Society of Artists* and the public, by Benjamin H. Latrobe, Esq. and on the 5th of June following, a committee was appointed by the Society of Artists to confer with a committee of the Pennsylvania Academy, on the subject of a more intimate union of the institutions; but a difference of opinion produced a resolution of the society, that it was best to continue a "distinct and independent institution." Upon this conclusion, some artists of eminence, from a conviction that the proposals of the Academy were advantageous to the general interests, separated from the Society, and joined their interests with the founders of the Academy.

On the 29th of January, 1812, the Society of Artists proceeded to appoint professors in the elementary and antique schools; and on the 13th of March following, the directors of the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts resolved, "in order to accomplish the original purposes of the association," to organize a body of artists, to be attached to the institution. This body of artists, not to exceed forty in number, are to consist of "painters, sculptors, architects and engravers."

&c. who shall be called "*Pennsylvania Academicians*," and each individual can only be entitled to election by the distinguished merit of his own original works. Architects and engravers are never to exceed one fourth of the whole number of Academicians. The directors are to elect the professors, masters, &c. the academicians pointing out what professorships, &c. shall be created. Six artists are a "*Council of Academicians*," as a standing committee, and the organ of communication between the body of Academicians and the board of directors, sitting with the directors for the purposes of deliberation and consultation, but not voting with them, except for the award of premiums and medals. Salaries, pensions, and purchases are made by the directors; schools and exhibitions are under the regulation of the Academicians. The second annual exhibition took place in May, 1812.

At the last session of the Pennsylvanian legislature, the Society of Artists were incorporated under the title of "The Columbian Society of Artists."

As the Society of Artists had instituted schools for elementary and antique drawing in the building belonging to the Academy, the Academicians went on to institute a school for the living human figure, and to appoint a professor of anatomy. Some dissatisfaction, however, induced the Society of Artists to appoint a similar professor, and institute a similar school under the same roof.

It will appear from the above statement, that there is a diversity of opinion and a division among the artists of Philadelphia, and a want of union between the Society of Artists and the Academicians, all which, it is hoped, will be of short duration. Truly considered, their interests are the same. The views of the amateurs by whose zeal the foundation of the Academy was laid, can only be the furtherance of the arts generally, and, particularly the honour and prosperity of the city of Philadelphia; and all this is in perfect unison with the views and interests of artists of all descriptions. The certainty that the *just* object of both parties *can be but one*, ought to make each conclude that there is some error not yet seen, some want of calmness or of candour *somewhere*, which, if sought for, detected, acknowledged, and removed, will unite the artists and the friends of the arts, to the general advancement of the honour and interests of all concerned.

We will now proceed to review the specimens of the fine arts placed before the public by the Columbian Society of Artists, and the Pennsylvania Academy, in their third annual exhibition, opened on the 17th of May, 1813, and shall begin with the painting gallery, where we find, following the catalogue, six pictures lately received from Spain.

No. 1. *The Martyrdom of St. Lawrence.* TITIAN. This is a very fine picture, which has been much injured, and repaired, or repainted in parts, by an inferior artist or picture-cleaner. The head, breast, arms, hands, and feet of the martyr are as originally painted, and are exquisitely fine in colouring. The drawing is true, but not remarkably fine, with the exception of the right foot, which demands attention, and excites admiration in every beholder. The composition of the picture generally is defective, and the colouring, with the exception of the flesh, not of the highest order.

2. *St. Francis at his devotions.* FRANCIS RIZI. This is a very beautiful picture, which has sustained from time, accident, and the repairer, injuries similar to those of No. 1. The parts which have not been obscured or lost by re-painting, exhibit a handling which is remarkably fine.

3. *Christ in the temple, disputing with the Jewish Doctors.* PAUL VERONESE. We have here a picture of great design, by a great master. The style of the architecture is grand; the grouping of the figures natural; the figures characteristic and well drawn; the principal, as is frequently the case, much the worst; the colouring of the heads remarkably fine. The general disposition of the colours is good, but the picture is not highly finished, and there is a glaring defect, originating with some *repairer* and *improver*, who has put a spot of blue in the back ground in contact with one of the faces, which injures the whole effect of the painting.

4. *The Virgin, with the infant Christ and St. John, in imitation of Reubens.* PEREDA. No part of this picture is as originally painted, but the head of the woman and the figure of the child. These, particularly the last, are a very fine imitation of Reubens, and models of colouring.

5. *St. Joseph with the infant Christ in his arms.* SCHOOL OF VANDYKE. Not so good a picture as the preceding numbers of this set, but in much better preservation. Its deficiency is in its colouring, which is generally cold, a fault particularly perceivable in the flesh. The drawing is good; the drapery well disposed, and the composition generally of much merit.

6. *The reconciliation of Jacob and Esau.* ANDREW BECARRO. We have here a painting above mediocrity, but not a good picture. The group in the back ground, on the right side of the picture is the best part, particularly the child. The draperies are well coloured. The masses of light and shadow are not well studied or managed; they are broken and abrupt.

7. *Joseph, receiving from his brothers, Benjamin and their offerings.* This picture, to which no artist's name is attached, is much

better than the last in every respect. The harmony of the colouring has been originally very great, but is broken by the *repairer*, who has given a violent piece of blue sky. With the exception of this *bit of blue*, the picture is a model of colouring, particularly the group in the back ground, where the gradations of flesh are truly admirable.

These seven numbers form a set of pictures of large size and great value, selected and purchased in Europe by an American gentleman, and deposited in the Pennsylvania Academy, with a view of promoting the cultivation of the Fine Arts in his native country. The same gentleman has rescued and restored to his country the invaluable bust of Washington, by Ceracchi, which we shall speak of when we come to the antique saloon, in our progress through this exhibition. This bust, owing to some unaccountable demur about price, was thrown into the possession of a Spanish traveller, who eagerly seized the opportunity of paying the artist the sum demanded, 1,500 dollars, and who conveyed the treasure to his native land. We shall, perhaps, at a future period, have an opportunity of detailing the circumstances which led to its restoration, and of recording the name of the American citizen who has made such a present to the arts and the patriotism of his country.

8. *Portrait of a Gentleman*. T. SULLY, P. A. This is not a favourable specimen of Mr. Sully's talents, and gives no idea of his general manner. It is much to be lamented that Mr. Sully has not sent some pictures to the present exhibition, as specimens of his present style of painting.

9. *The Natural Bridge in Virginia*. T. BIRCH, A. C. S. A. and P. A. We shall speak of Mr. Birch's merits and demerits when considering his original compositions; this is a copy, and ought so to be marked in the catalogue.

10. *Portrait of a Gentleman*. B. OTIS, A. A. Mr. Otis is a young artist of merit, rapidly improving; he has much truth and nature in his heads, and this portrait only wants strength to entitle it to great praise.

11. *Telemachus in the island of Calypso*. C. KING. This is a copy from an extremely beautiful picture of Mr. West's. The omission of marking it as a copy would appear like intended deception, but we are assured is a mere error in making out or printing the catalogue.

12. *Portrait of a Gentleman*. B. OTIS, A. A.

13. *Ruins and Cattle*. TEILLIMAN. This is an old picture of no uncommon merit. The time will arrive when our exhibitions will consist of pictures recently painted, by artists who are candidates for public approbation and honest fame. At present it is excusable;

perhaps laudable, to exhibit well known pictures, and even to give them a place in successive annual exhibitions, for the purpose of exciting attention to the arts generally, and of giving easy access to specimens which may serve as models to young artists.

14. *Fruit Piece, &c.* FLEMISH MASTER.

16. *Fruit Piece.* RAPHAEL PEALE. Though this is not the best picture which this artist has exhibited on the present occasion, we will take the opportunity of speaking generally as to his merits and deficiencies. His great merit, and it is a very great one, is the accurate and minute resemblance which he produces of the object before him. It is indeed very near perfection, and parts may be pointed out that defy censure. Let Mr. Peale combine with this truth and clearness those principles of composition which apply to all subjects, and which are elucidated in the still-life compositions of the Flemish masters, let him make, by the disposition of his light, one principal object, and keep the others in due subordination, and let him, in addition to this, give more warmth to his back grounds, making them unite better with his objects, and he may challenge competition in this line of painting.

18. *Shipwrecked Sailor.* T. BIRCH, A. C. S. A. and P. A. A picture of a desolate beach, an inhospitable sea, terminated by a cold and misty horizon, near which is seen a wreck, and in the foreground a solitary, miserable man, who appears only to have been rescued from the deep to die with hunger on shore, touches the feelings of the spectator, without making any pretensions to the higher requisites of the art.

19. *Boors.* OSTADE. Probably a copy; certainly good for nothing.

20. *The Holy Family.* From CORREGIO. We have seen much better copies of this exquisite picture.

21. *Portrait of a Lady.* MISS GEORGE. Here the catalogue again neglects to tell us that this is a copy. It is very creditable to the young lady. The original was in the collection of the late Mr. Wertmuller.

22. *Portrait of George Clinton, Esq. late Vice-President of the United States.* AMES. Mr. Ames would add to his merits as a portrait painter, which are very great, if he would avoid the occasional cold and leaden hue of his carnations.

25. *Portrait of a Gentleman.* C. R. LESLIE. This is the first picture which we come to, in the order of the catalogue, painted by this very extraordinary young gentleman, and probably the first portrait he ever painted. To say that its merit does not place it as high in the scale of portraits as his historic pictures, to which we shall soon come, stand in the rank they belong to, is not saying much in dispraise of

the picture, and is praise to the artist. We hope master Leslie will not be obliged to apply his talents to the study of portrait painting. This is not a good portrait, but considered as the production of a youth, comparatively a novice, it is a prodigy, and puts to shame men who have laboured years without attaining the one half of that skill which is here displayed. It is a picture of great promise; its faults are want of strength, and too much red in the shadows.

26. *The offering of the Wise Men.* VANDYKE. We consider this picture as an imitation of Reubens, and see nothing in it, in common with the manner of Vandyke. It is a picture of merit.

27. *Portrait of a Gentleman.* I. JARVIS, A. A. Mr. Jarvis has been long known and esteemed as a portrait painter. This picture has more warmth of colouring, and less hardness than is often seen in the heads of this artist, yet it is not his best picture.

28. *Portrait of Captain Hull.* G. STUART, P. A. It is not for us to point out the merits of the greatest portrait painter our country has produced. For thirty years Mr. Stuart has been at the head of his profession. Let the young artist look up to his pictures as models, but let him never forget that the model from which Stuart gained his art was nature; let him remember that even Stuart's portraits have faults, and that the faults of a master become deformities in an imitator, and his peculiarities faults.

29. *Portrait of a Gentleman.* I. EICKHOLTZ, A. A. Mr. Eickholtz is a very improving portrait painter. He has been aided by studying the last named master. Let him take a hint from the above caution.

30. *Madona.* CARLO MORATI. A head of some beauty.

31. *Tea Party.* HOREMAN.

32. *Dead Game.* FAGG. An extremely beautiful picture; a model for this species of composition.

33. *Drinking Party.* HOREMAN. This is a companion for No. 31, by the same hand, but of greater merit. Both are cold, but the man with the cup and tankard in this picture is finely drawn, and painted with great nature and some humour. The hand of this figure which holds the tankard, is worth particular observation for its excellence.

34. *Musidora bathing, from West.* C. R. LESLIE. This is the picture which we commended in No. I. of the Monthly Recorder, under the name of *Diana*, when paying a tribute of commendation to the extraordinary talents of master Leslie.

35. *Timon of Athens.* C. R. LESLIE. This is an original composition, by master Leslie, and though by no means equal to his last work, *The Trial of Constance*, is one of the firm and gigantic steps

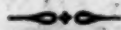
by which he has arrived at the skill which produced the last-mentioned excellent specimen, and which will carry him, with that continuance of industry and virtue which we feel assured of, beyond all his contemporaries.

41. *Battle*. CALDWELL. This is by a young gentleman, and evinces talent. When he has acquired more of the art, our advice will be of more utility to him.

46. *Miss Farren, in the character of Juliet*. BARBIERE. A full length picture, painted with great firmness of hand, and knowledge of the art. The drapery is very good.

47. *A Portrait of a Gentleman*. B. OTIS, A. A. We mentioned this young artist before. He has represented this gentleman in a very uncommon attitude, and deserves commendation for attempting something out of the dull routine of figures setting for their pictures, but this is overstrained; Mr. Otis has talents to lead him to the just medium. This is the best picture he has exhibited on this occasion.

[To be concluded in our next Number.]



A London artist of eminence writes to his correspondent in New-York—

"Mr. West is engaged in a large picture, which is quite *miraculous*. It promises to equal Raphael, or Michael Angelò. I have no language to express the grandeur of the conception, the knowledge of composition, and the powers of execution. The subject is "*Our Saviour before Pilate*," 22 feet by 15. Such expression, such character, such every thing that is great, that it appears almost supernatural. The art is in amazement to see a man seventy-six years old, uniting the vigour and fire of youth with the experience of age, and throwing all his former works into obscurity by the brilliancy of his present achievements. As his powers have so much increased, the people of Philadelphia will have no reason to fear that his second picture for them will not be equal to the first; they may expect it to be superior.

"Mr. Trumbull has painted his picture of "*Suffer little children to come unto me*," nearly all over again. It is very large, and now really a very VERY fine picture. He has just sent it to the Institution. He has sent also a Russian subject, "*The Czar Peter at Narva, laying his sword on the table of the town-house, stained with the blood of his soldiers, in repressing their cruelty*." It is on a large half length; the figures half length, well conceived, and parts fine."

A plan is in operation in Philadelphia to publish a print from Master Leslie's "*Trial of Constance*," by subscription, for his benefit.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Professor Mitchill, of our university, has concluded the geological part of his course of Natural History. On this department he gave about thirty discourses. He adopts the Wernerian theory; and illustrates it by facts derived from the United States. Dr. Mitchill makes great use of MACLURE's chart; which is part of the furniture of his hall. His own observations are very extensive; and they demonstrate that our portion of North America is singularly adapted to geognostic researches. Within a few miles from this city, the *primitive*, the *transition*, the *secondary*, and the *alluvial* strata of the earth may be examined to great advantage. Nothing can exceed the completeness of their several formations. Fribourgh and Paris may consider themselves outdone by New-York in the opportunities for these kinds of researches into the constitution of the terraqueous globe.

 DRAMATIC RECORD.

NEW-YORK THEATRE.

April 30—THE ETHIOP AND THE UPHOLSTERER.

May 3—THE PURSE. RULE A WIFE AND HAVE A WIFE AND THE UPHOLSTERER.

This fine old comedy of Beaumont and Fletcher has been made popular and familiar to us yankees by the masterly representation of Leon which Mr. Cooper gives us. Perez and Estifania have never been played with equal effect on our stage, though requiring equal talents to those which are required by Leon. The other characters of the play should be well sustained to prevent their becoming troublesome or disgusting. The indecencies of the *old school* are omitted; some *grossiertes* might yet be dispensed with; for example, the captain's two pieces of butter.

Leon is one of the very fine parts of the fine old writers of English comedy; and Mr. Cooper proves himself a master in his art by the manner in which he dresses and acts it. We shall seize the first opportunity offered by a repetition of the play, to descant further on the merit of Mr. Cooper's representation of the part, and to point out what we think some few errors in judgment.

May 4—WILD OATS AND THE SHIPWRECK. (*The crew of the Hornet invited to the Pit.*)

May 5—THE PROVOKED HUSBAND (*Lord and Lady Townley by Mr. and Miss Holman, engaged for three nights*) AND DEAD ALIVE.

This excellent comedy never appeared to us so flat and stale, or, to the managers so unprofitable, as on this evening. The peltings of a most pitiless north-east storm prevented the ladies from attending to welcome Miss Holman, whose Lady Townley gave such pleasure last fall, and attracted so many brilliant auditors.

May 7—AS YOU LIKE IT (Jaques, Mr. Holman, Rosalind, Miss Holman) AND THE UPHOLSTERER.

It is not for us to mark the beauties of this beautiful pastoral comedy, or quote the eminently moral passages put into the mouths of Adam, Orlando, and Jaques; every reader is too familiar with them, as well as with the wit of Rosalind, and the exquisitely poetic lines which occur so frequently throughout the piece, to stand in need of our finger to point them out; we shall, therefore, bestow that attention which our limits permit, on the young actress who was the chief attraction of the evening, and we do this the more readily as we delight in eulogium, and to speak of her comic acting is to praise.

Miss Holman is a young actress, and a young and beautiful woman, with eyes bright as diamonds, and teeth more white than pearls, but above all, with a fascinating expression of countenance which, when she gives passages of archness, softens them with the delicacy of apparent innocence, and adds tenfold pathos to the tale of wo, by insuring the sympathy of the beholder. Miss Holman is likewise an elegant woman, with the dress and manner which high education can alone bestow. Above all, as an actress, Miss Holman copies nature, and evinces delicacy and strong feeling. The playful archness of her Rosalind is beyond our praise. Of the other performers we can praise Mr. Simpson's Orlando; only reminding him that the emphatic word in the beautiful speech to the banished Duke is "let," and not "gentleness;" but we are aware how much Orlando, in this passage, depends upon the person who plays the Duke. We are perfectly content with Mrs. Claude's Celia, and more than content with Mr. Darley's songs in Amiens; we can praise, but not without qualification, Mr. Green's Adam; Mr. Green is too querulous in his old men, we feel that he can do better. To Mr. Hilson's Touchstone, and Mrs. Oldmixon's Audrey, we can give unbounded approbation; we wish we could praise more.

May 10—THE VOTARY OF WEALTH AND THE SULTAN.

It was both just and judicious to give Miss Holman an opportunity of displaying her talents in Roxalana, after being exhibited in so beclouded a manner in the first piece.

May 12—THE ETHIOP.

May 14—THE GAMESTER AND ALL THE WORLD'S A STAGE (Mr. and Miss Holman re-engaged.)

May 17—MUCH ADO ABOUT NOTHING AND BARNABY BRITTLE.

May 19—THE HONEY MOON AND PAUL AND VIRGINIA.

May 21—MACBETH (Macbeth and Lady, Mr. and Miss Holman) AND BARNABY BRITTLE.

May 24—MACBETH (Macbeth and Lady, Mr. Cooper and Miss Holman) AND MY GRANDMOTHER.

May 26—PROVOKED HUSBAND (Lord and Lady Townley, Mr. and Miss Holman) AND A BUDGET OF BLUNDERS.

RECORD OF EVENTS.

NEW-YORK—MAY, 1813.

DOMESTIC.

April 28.—Before me, the undersigned Notary Public, personally came and appeared, Samuel G. Bailey, late master of the ship Amsterdam Packet, William R. Handy, late master of the ship Lydia, and Adam Knox, late master of the schooner Augusta, all belonging to New-York; and the said deponents being duly sworn according to law, severally and solemnly deposed and declared, that they were passengers on board the ship Niagara, which arrived at this port from Lisbon on Saturday last; and that on the 8th of April inst. being in lat. 43, 49, long. 65, at meridian saw a large lump on the horizon, bearing N. W. distant six or eight miles, which they supposed to be the hull of a large ship bottom upwards. When within gunshot of it discovered it had motion, and on a nearer approach found it to be a fish, apparently two hundred feet in length, about thirty broad, and from seventeen to eighteen feet high in the centre, covered with a shell, formed similar to the plank on a clinker built vessel. Near the head, on the right side, was a large hole or archway, covered occasionally with a fin, which was at times about eight or ten feet out of water. Intended to have sent the boat to make further discoveries, but was deterred from the dreadful appearance of the monster, having approached within thirty yards of it.

Sworn before me, Wm. BLEECKER, Notary Public.

New-Orleans, March 21.—The U. S. brig Siren, lieutenant Joseph Bainbridge, commander, sailed on a cruise.

Boston, April 20.—Three English prisoners on parole made their escape to Halifax, but were immediately taken up by the government, and submitted to the U. S. commissary of prisoners to be sent back.

May 1.—The U. S. frigates President and Congress put to sea, and were soon out of sight from Boston.

Buffalo, April 20.—Major General Morgan Lewis and Brigadier General Boyd have arrived at this place.

Copy of a letter from Major General Dearborn, to the Secretary at War.—Head Quarters, York, capital of Upper Canada, April 23.—Sir, after a detention of some days by adverse winds, we arrived at this place yesterday morning, and at eight o'clock commenced landing the troops about three miles westward from the town, and one and a half from the enemy's works. The wind was high and in an unfavourable direction for the boats, which prevented the landing of the troops at a clear field, the scite of the ancient French fort Tarento. It prevented also many of the armed vessels from taking positions which would have most effectually covered our landing—but every thing that could be done was effected.

The riflemen under Major Forsyth first landed, under a heavy fire from Indians and other troops. General Sheaffe commanded in person. He had collected his whole force in the woods near the point where the wind compelled our troops to land. His force consisted of seven hundred regulars and militia, and one hundred Indians. Major Forsyth was supported as promptly as possible; but the contest was sharp and severe for near half an hour, and the enemy were repulsed by a number far inferior to theirs. As soon as General Pike landed with seven or eight hundred men, and the remainder of the troops were pushing for the shore, the enemy retreated to their works. Our troops were now formed

on the ground originally intended for their landing, marched through a thick wood, and after carrying one battery by assault, were moving in columns towards the main work: when within sixty rods of this a tremendous explosion took place from a magazine previously prepared, and which threw out such immense quantities of stone as most seriously to injure our troops. I have not yet been able to collect the returns of the killed and wounded; but our loss will I fear exceed one hundred; and among these I have to lament the loss of that brave and excellent officer Brigadier General Pike, who received a contusion from a large stone, which terminated his valuable life within a few hours. His loss will be severely felt.

Previously to this explosion the enemy had retired into the town, excepting a party of regulars, to the number of forty, who did not escape the effects of the shock, and were destroyed.

General Sheaffe moved off with the regular troops, and left direction with the commanding officer of the militia to make the best terms he could. In the mean time all farther resistance on the part of the enemy ceased, and the outlines of a capitulation were agreed on.

As soon as I learned that General Pike had been wounded, I went on shore. To the general I had been induced to confide the immediate attack, from a knowledge that it was his wish, and that he would have felt mortified had it not been given to him.

Every movement was under my view. The troops behaved with great firmness, and deserve much applause, particularly those first engaged, and under circumstances which would have tried the steadiness of veterans.

Our loss in the morning and in carrying the first battery was not great, perhaps forty or fifty killed and wounded, and of them a full proportion of officers.

Notwithstanding the enemy's advantage in position and numbers in the commencement of the action, their loss was greater than ours, especially in officers. It was with great exertion that the small vessels of the fleet could work into the harbour against a gale of wind, but as soon as they got into a proper position, a tremendous cannonade opened upon the enemy's batteries and was kept up against them until they were carried or blown up, and had, no doubt, a powerful effect upon the enemy.

I am under the greatest obligations to Commodore Chauncey for his able and indefatigable exertions in every possible manner which could give facility and effect to the expedition. He is equally estimable for sound judgment, bravery and industry. The government could not have made a more fortunate selection.

Unfortunately the enemy's armed ship Prince Regent left this place for Kingston a few days before we arrived. A large ship on the stocks and nearly planked up, and much naval stores were set fire to by the enemy soon after the explosion of the magazine. A considerable quantity of military stores and provisions remain, but no vessels fit for use.

We have not the means of transporting the prisoners, and must, of course, leave them on parole.

I hope we shall so far complete what is necessary to be done here, as to be able to sail to-morrow for Niagara, whither I send this by a small vessel, with notice to General Lewis of our approach. I have the honour to be, sir, &c.

HENRY DEARBORN.

Copy of a letter from Commodore Chauncey to the Secretary of the Navy.— U. S. Ship Madison, at anchor off York, 28th April, 1813.—Sir, agreeably to your instructions and arrangements made with Major-General Dearborn, I took

on board of the squadron under my command the general and suite, and about 1,700 troops, and left Sacket's Harbour on the 25th instant, for this place. We arrived here yesterday morning and took a position about one mile to the south and westward of the enemy's principal fort, and as near the shore as we could with safety to the vessels. The place fixed upon by the major-general and myself for landing the troops was the scite of the old French fort Taranta.

The debarkation commenced about eight o'clock A. M. and was completed about ten. The wind blowing heavy from the eastward, the boats fell to leeward of the position fixed upon, and were, in consequence, exposed to a galling fire from the enemy, who had taken a position in a thick wood near where the first troops landed; however, the cool intrepidity of the officers and men, overcame every obstacle. Their attack upon the enemy was so vigorous that he fled in every direction, leaving a great many of his killed and wounded upon the field. As soon as the troops were landed I directed the schooners to take a position near the fort, in order that the attack upon them by the army and navy might be simultaneous. The schooners were obliged to beat up to their position, which they did in a very handsome order, under a heavy fire from the enemy's batteries, and took a position within about six hundred yards of their principal fort, and opened a heavy cannonade upon the enemy, which did great execution, and very much contributed to their final destruction. The troops as soon as landed were formed under the immediate orders of Brig. General Pike, who led in a most gallant manner the attack upon the forts, and after having carried two redoubts in their approach to the principal work, (the enemy having previously laid a train) blew up his magazine, which, in its effects upon our troops, was dreadful, having killed and wounded a great many, and amongst the former, the ever to be lamented Brigadier General Pike, who fell at the head of his column, by a contusion received by a heavy stone from the magazine. His death at this time is much to be regretted, as he had the perfect confidence of the major-general; and his known activity, zeal, and experience, make his loss a national one.

In consequence of the fall of General Pike, the command of the troops devolved for a time upon Colonel Pierce, who soon after took possession of the town. At about two P. M. the American flag was substituted for the British, and at about four, our troops were in quiet possession of the town. As soon as General Dearborn learnt the situation of General Pike, he landed and assumed the command. I have the honour of inclosing a copy of the capitulation which was entered into, and approved by General Dearborn and myself.

The enemy set fire to some of his principal stores, containing large quantities of naval and military stores, as well as a large ship upon the stocks nearly finished—the only vessel found here is the Duke of Gloucester, undergoing repairs—the Prince Regent left here on the 24th for Kingston. We have not yet had a return made of the naval and military stores, consequently can form no correct idea of the quantity, but have made arrangements to have all taken on board that we can receive, the rest will be destroyed.

I have to regret the death of Midshipmen Thompson and Hatfield, and several seamen killed, the exact number I do not know, as the returns from the different vessels have not yet been received.

From the judicious arrangements made by Gen. Dearborn, I presume that the public stores will be disposed of, so that the troops will be ready to re-embark to-morrow, and proceed to execute other objects of the expedition the first fair wind.

I cannot speak in too much praise of the cool intrepidity of the officers and

men generally under my command, and I feel myself particularly indebted to the officers commanding vessels for their zeal in seconding all my views.

I have the honour, &c. &c. ISAAC CHAUNCEY.

Terms of CAPITULATION entered into on the 27th April, 1813, for the surrender of the town of York, in Upper Canada, to the Army and Navy of the United States, under the command of Major General Dearborn and Commodore Chauncey :

That the troops, regular and militia, at this post, and the naval officers and seamen, shall be surrendered prisoners of war. The troops, regular and militia, to ground their arms immediately on parade, and the naval officers and seamen to be immediately surrendered.

That all public stores, naval and military, shall be immediately given up to the commanding officers of the army and navy of the United States—that all private property shall be guaranteed to the citizens of the town of York.

That all papers belonging to the civil officers shall be retained by them—that such surgeons as may be procured to attend the wounded of the British regulars and Canadian militia shall not be considered prisoners of War.

That one lieutenant colonel, one major, thirteen captains, nine lieutenants, eleven ensigns, one quarter-master, one deputy adjutant-general of the militia, namely—Lt. Col. Chewitt, Major Allen, Captains John Willson, John Button, Peter Robinson, Reuben Richardson, John Arnold, James Fenwick, James Mustard, Duncan Cameron, David Thompson, John Robinson, Samuel Ridout, Thomas Hamilton, John Burn, William Jarvis—Lieutenants John H. Shultz, George Mustard, Barnet Vanderburch, Robert Stanton, George Ridout, William Jarvis, Edward M'Mahon, John Willson, Eli Playter—Ensigns And. Thompson, Alfred Senally, Donald M'Arthur, William Smith, Andrew Mercer, James Chewett, George Kink, Edward Thompson, Charles Denison, George Denison, Darcey Boulton—Quarter-Master Charles Baynes—nineteen serjeants, four corporals, and 204 rank and file—of the Field Train Department, William Dunbar—of the Provincial Navy, Captain Frs. Govereaux—Midshipmen John Ridout, Louis Boupre—Lieutenant Green—Clerk, James Langsdon—one boatswain—fifteen Naval Artificers—of his majesty's regular troops, Lieutenant De Koven—one serjeant-major—and of the royal artillery, one bombardier and three gunners, shall be surrendered as prisoners of war, and accounted for in the exchange of prisoners between the United States and Great Britain.

(Signed) G. S. Mitchell, Lt. Col. 3d Regt. A. U. S.—Samuel S. Conner, Major and A. D. C. to Major Gen. Dearborn—William King, Major 15th U. S. Infantry—Jesse D. Elliott, Lieut. U. S. Navy—W. Chewitt, Lt. Col. Comdg. 3d Regt. York Militia—W. Allan, Major 3d Regt. York Militia—F. Gaurreau, Lt. M. Dpt.

New-London, May 5.—Mr. Alfred Carpenter, an aged and respectable citizen of Norwich, having been informed by some American prisoners, who had been put on shore from H.B.M. ship Ramillies, that his son, John Carpenter, was detained by impressment on board that ship, came to this city to solicit the means of rescuing his son from bondage. A smack was accordingly procured for that purpose, and captain Oliver Champlain volunteered his services in taking charge of her. They left this port with a flag on the 29th ult. with Mr. Carpenter on board; same day fell in with the Ramillies and Orpheus, seven leagues to the southward of Block Island. As soon as the flag was discovered by the Ramillies, she made sail and stood for the smack; sent a boat with a lieutenant, who took on board Captain C. and Mr. Carpenter, where the captain, Sir

T. H. Hardy, received them with his characteristic politeness. Having made known their business to him, he readily consented to discharge the young man, and said, if he were convinced there were any other American on board, he would discharge them with pleasure. John Carpenter had been held in British service about 5 years, and had wages due to him amounting to upwards of 300 dollars, and more than 2000 dollars of prize money. Captain Hardy gave him the certificate necessary to enable him to procure the money, which in due time he will undoubtedly do. Carpenter speaks with great respect of Sir Thomas, and says he has been uniformly treated well on board the different ships in which he has served. The meeting between the father and the son was truly affecting. Carpenter informs that there are four impressed Americans remaining on board the *Ranillies*, viz. Edward Ried, of Nantucket, 13 years in the service; William Banks, of Hampton, Virginia, about 5 years do. John Clements, of Nantucket or New-York, and John Nichols, of New-York. We also learn that there is an impressed American, named Job Macomber, of Dartmouth, Massachusetts, on board the *Orpheus*, 3 years in the service.

Havre-de-Grace, May 3.—This morning, a little after the break of day, a British armed force, under cover of armed vessels which anchored in front of this town, and in 11 large barges, landed below a small breastwork which had been roughly thrown up, and in which were one 9 and two 4 pounders, and a few of the inhabitants. The vessels in front of the town threw three Congreve rockets, one of which passed through a frame house without further damage; another struck a Mr. Webster on the left side of the head, and killed him on the spot. The attack was a surprise, and there was neither an organised resistance nor defence—the enemy possessed themselves of the nine pounder and two four pounders, and afterwards proceeded with torches and other combustibles prepared for the purpose, to conflagrate several of the houses. The two taverns and thirteen other houses were burnt to the ground: they plundered all of the inhabitants whom they found, women and children indiscriminately, ripping open feather beds, and throwing the feathers to the wind, and taking with them the ticking; women and children's clothes were also taken from their persons; they burnt every vessel here except one which lay sunk on the east side of the *Susquehanna*.

May 8.—An Eulogy was delivered by Dr. Samuel L. Mitchill, on the late Dr. Benjamin Rush. The oration was pronounced in the new Court-room of our magnificent and beautiful City-Hall. The audience was very numerous and respectable. The College of Physicians, who had taken measures for this tribute to the memory of the illustrious deceased, attended on the occasion. Dr. Mitchill, though engaged in portraying the character and merits of Dr. Rush, improved the opportunity to pay the tribute of friendship and feeling to the memory of his late colleagues, E. H. Smith, and E. Miller. The trustees of the college have passed a vote of thanks, and a request of a copy of the Eulogy for publication.

May 10.—The frigate *United States*, Commodore Decatur, has left the Hudson, and gone down to the watering place.

May 13.—The *Macedonian*, Captain Jacob Jones,* has left the Hudson, and gone down to the watering place.

* In the introduction to the record of public events for April, when mentioning the victory obtained by this gallant officer, then commanding the *Wasp*, we erroneously wrote Lieutenant James, instead of Jacob Jones.

On the 6th of May, the English landed and burnt the little towns of George and Frederick on Sassafras River, which empties into Chesapeake Bay.

On the 9th of May, the ship Neptune sailed from Newcastle, having on board the embassy to Russia and their suite.

On the 25th of April, the British and Indians invested Fort Meigs. On the 1st of May, Gen. Harrison commenced a cannonade upon the works erecting by the enemy. Gen. Clay gave notice by a messenger to Gen. Harrison of his approach with the Kentucky militia, and received Gen. Harrison's orders to land 800 men of his brigade (coming down in boats) on the opposite shore, and attack the British batteries at a given hour, when the general designed a sortie on the battery this side; the sortie was commanded by Colonel Miller, of the 19th U. S. infantry. Both attacks were completely successful. General Clay drove the enemy and spiked seven pieces of artillery, but unfortunately, when the militia are successful they have too much confidence. They remained on the ground, amused by the manœuvring of the British, until attacked by their force united with the savages, and were routed, with loss.

On the 13th of May, the British and Indians, having retreated from before Fort Meigs, General Harrison, left the garrison under the command of General Clay, and removed his head-quarters to Lower Sandusky.

May 27.—The U. S. frigates United States and Macedonian, and the sloop of war Hornet, have proceeded through Hell-Gate, and are 30 miles this side Montaug Point. The United States was struck with lightning on the 24th, off Hunt's Point, but received little or no injury.

On the 18th April, General Wilkinson, with 2000 men, took possession of Mobile.

The Hon. Daniel D. Tompkins is re-elected Governour of this state.

On Monday the 24th of May, the thirteenth Congress of the United States convened at Washington. The Hon. Elbridge Gerry, Vice-President, delivered an address to the Senate. Henry Clay, Esq. was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives.

Washington, May 25.—At 12 o'clock this day, the President of the United States transmitted to both houses of Congress the following

MESSAGE.

*Fellow Citizens of the Senate, and
of the House of Representatives,*

At an early day after the close of the last session of Congress, an offer was formally communicated from his imperial majesty, the emperor of Russia, of his mediation, as the common friend of the U. States and Great Britain, for the purpose of facilitating a peace between them. The high character of the Emperor Alexander being a satisfactory pledge for the sincerity and impartiality of his offer, it was immediately accepted; and as a further proof of the disposition on the part of the U. States to meet their adversary in honourable experiments for terminating the war, it was determined to avoid intermediate delay, incident to the distance of the parties, by a definitive provision for the contemplated negotiation. Three of our eminent citizens were accordingly commissioned with the requisite powers to conclude a treaty of peace with persons clothed with like powers on the part of Great Britain. They are authorised also to enter into such conventional regulations of the commerce between the two countries, as may be mutually advantageous. The two envoys who were in the United States at the time of their appointment, have proceeded to join their colleague already at St. Petersburg.

The envoys have received another commission authorising them to conclude with Russia a treaty of commerce, with a view to strengthen the amicable relations, and improve the beneficial intercourse between the two countries.

The issue of this friendly interposition of the Russian emperor, and this pacific manifestation on the part of the U. States, time only can decide. That the sentiments of Great Britain towards that sovereign will have produced an acceptance of his offered mediation, must be presumed. That no adequate motives exist to prefer a continuance of war with the U. States, to the terms on which they are willing to close it is certain. The British cabinet also must be sensible that with respect to the important question of impressment, on which the war so essentially turns, a search for, or seizure of British persons or property on board neutral vessels on the high seas, is not a belligerent right derived from the law of nations; and it is obvious, that no visit or search, or use of force for any purpose, on board the vessels of one independent power on the high seas, can in war or peace be sanctioned by the laws or authority of another power. It is equally obvious that for the purpose of preserving to each state its seafaring members, by excluding them from the vessels of the other, the mode heretofore proposed by the United States, and now enacted by them as an article of municipal policy, cannot for a moment be compared with the mode practised by Great Britain, without a conviction of its title to preference; inasmuch as the latter leaves the discrimination between the mariners of the two nations, to officers exposed by unavoidable bias, as well as by a defect of evidence, to a wrong decision under circumstances precluding, for the most part, the enforcement of controlling penalties, and where a wrong decision, besides the irreparable violation of the sacred rights of persons, might frustrate the plans and profits of entire voyages; whereas, the mode assumed by the U. States guards, with studied fairness and efficacy, against errors in such cases, and avoids the effect of casual errors on the safety of navigation, and the success of mercantile expeditions.

If the reasonableness of expectations, drawn from these considerations, could guarantee their fulfilment, a just peace would not be distant. But it becomes the wisdom of the national legislature, to keep in mind the true policy, or rather the indispensable obligation of adapting its measures to the supposition, that the only course to that happy event is in the vigorous employment of the resources of war. And painful as the reflection is, this duty is particularly enforced by the spirit and manner in which the war continues to be waged by the enemy, who, uninfluenced by the unvaried examples of humanity set them, are adding to the savage fury of it on one frontier, a system of plunder and conflagration on the other, equally forbidden by respect for national character, and by the established rules of civilized warfare.

As an encouragement to persevering and invigorated exertions to bring the contest to a happy result, I have the satisfaction of being able to appeal to the auspicious progress of our arms, both by land and on the water.

In continuation of the brilliant achievements of our infant navy, a signal triumph has been gained by Captain Lawrence and his companions, in the *Hornet* sloop of war, which destroyed a British sloop of war, with a celerity so unexampled, and with a slaughter of the enemy so disproportionate to the loss in the *Hornet*, as to claim for the conquerors the highest praise, and the full recompense provided by congress in preceding cases. Our public ships of war in general, as well as the private armed vessels, have continued also their activity and success against the commerce of the enemy, and by their vigilance and address

have greatly frustrated the efforts of the hostile squadrons distributed along our coasts to intercept them in returning into port, and resuming their cruises.

The augmentation of our naval force, as authorised at the last session of congress, is in progress. On the lakes our superiority is near at hand, where it is not already established.

The events of the campaign, so far as they are known to us, furnish matter of congratulation, and show, that under a wise organization and efficient direction, the army is destined to a glory not less brilliant than that which already encircles the navy. The attack and capture of York is, in that quarter, a presage of future and greater victories; while on the western frontier, the issue of the late siege of Fort Meigs leaves nothing to regret but a single act of inconsiderate valour.

The provisions last made for filling the ranks and enlarging the staff of the army, have had the best effects. It will be for the consideration of Congress, whether other provisions depending on their authority, may not still further improve the military establishment and the means of defence.

The sudden death of the distinguished citizen who represented the United States in France, without any special arrangements by him for such a contingency, has left us without the expected sequel to his last communications: nor has the French government taken any measures for bringing the depending negotiations to a conclusion, through its representative in the United States. This failure adds to delays, before so unreasonably spun out. A successor to our deceased minister has been appointed, and is ready to proceed on his mission; the course which he will pursue in fulfilling it, is that prescribed by a steady regard to the true interests of the United States, which equally avoids an abandonment of their just demands, and a connexion of their fortunes with the systems of other powers.

The receipts into the Treasury from the 1st of October to the 31st day of March last, including the sums received on account of Treasury Notes, and of the loans authorized by the acts of the last and the preceding sessions of Congress, have amounted to fifteen millions four hundred and twelve thousand dollars. The expenditures during the same period amounted to fifteen millions nine hundred and twenty thousand dollars, and left in the Treasury on the first of April, the sum of one million eight hundred and fifty-seven thousand dollars. The loan of sixteen millions of dollars, authorized by the act of the 8th of February last, has been contracted for. Of that sum, more than a million of dollars had been paid into the Treasury prior to the first of April, and formed a part of the receipts as above stated. The remainder of that loan, amounting to near fifteen millions of dollars, with the sum of five millions of dollars, authorized to be issued in Treasury Notes, and the estimated receipts from the customs and the sales of public lands, amounting to nine millions three hundred thousand dollars, and making, in the whole, twenty-nine millions three hundred thousand dollars to be received during the last nine months of the present year, will be necessary to meet the expenditures already authorized, and the engagements contracted in relation to the public debt. These engagements amount, during that period, to ten millions five hundred thousand dollars, which, with near one million for the civil, miscellaneous, and diplomatic expenses, both foreign and domestic, and seventeen millions eight hundred thousand for the military and naval expenditures, including the ships of war building and to be built, will leave a sum in the treasury at the end of the present year, equal to that on the first of April last. A part of this sum may be considered as a resource for de-

fraying any extraordinary expenses already authorized by law, beyond the sums above estimated; and a further resource for any emergency may be found in the sum of one million of dollars, the loan of which to the United States has been authorized by the state of Pennsylvania; but which has not yet been brought into effect.

This view of our finances, whilst it shows that due provision has been made for the expenses of the current year, shows at the same time, by the limited amount of the actual revenue, and the dependence on loans, the necessity of providing more adequately for the future supplies of the Treasury. This can best be done by a well digested system of internal revenue, in aid of existing sources; which will have the effect, both of abridging the amount of necessary loans, and on that account, as well as by placing the public credit on a more satisfactory basis, of improving the terms on which loans may be obtained. The loan of sixteen millions was not contracted for at a less interest than about seven and a half per cent; and although other causes may have had an agency, it cannot be doubted, that with the advantage of a more extended and less precarious revenue, a lower rate of interest might have sufficed. A longer postponement of this advantage could not fail to have a still greater influence on future loans.

In recommending to the National Legislature this resort to additional taxes, I feel great satisfaction in the assurance, that our constituents, who have already displayed so much zeal and firmness in the cause of their country, will cheerfully give every other proof of their patriotism which it calls for. Happily no people, with local and transitory exceptions never to be wholly avoided, are more able than the people of the United States to spare for the public wants a portion of their private means, whether regard be had to the ordinary profits of industry, or the ordinary price of subsistence in our country, compared with those in any other. And in no case could stronger reasons be felt for yielding the requisite contributions. By rendering the public resources certain, and commensurate to the public exigencies, the constituted authorities will be able to prosecute the war more rapidly to its proper issue; every hostile hope, founded on a calculated failure of our resources, will be cut off; and by adding to the evidence of bravery and skill, in combats on the ocean and on the land, an alacrity in supplying the treasure necessary to give them their fullest effect, and thus demonstrating to the world the public energy which our political institutions combine with the personal liberty distinguishing them, the best security will be provided against future enterprizes on the rights, or the peace of the nation.

The contest in which the United States are engaged, appeals for its support, to every motive that can animate an uncorrupted and enlightened people; to the love of country; to the pride of liberty; to an emulation of the glorious founders of their independence, by a successful vindication of its violated attributes; to the gratitude and sympathy which demand security from the most degrading wrongs of a class of citizens who have proved themselves so worthy the protection of their country, by their heroic zeal in its defence; and finally, to the sacred obligation of transmitting entire, to future generations, that precious patrimony of national rights and independence, which is held in trust by the present, from the goodness of Divine Providence.

Being aware of the inconveniences to which a protracted session at this season would be liable, I limit the present communication to objects of primary importance. In special messages which may ensue, regard will be had to the same consideration.

JAMES MADISON.

The Report of the congressional committee of Foreign Relations, with the ac-

companying bill for the exclusion of foreign seamen from our employ, was published in London on the 22d March, with comments. The bill is considered in England as a conciliatory step on our part. The people in England although highly elated by the recent events in Europe, were not less desirous of peace with this country—and their papers seem to consider the differences between the two countries as reduced to a very narrow point.

May 29.—Commodore Decatur and his little squadron were at anchor 10 miles this side New London when last heard of. The enemy's ships have left the entrance of our harbour, but what force they have off Montaug point is not known.

FOREIGN.

A London paper of March 27th says, "We have infinite pleasure in announcing that the new examinations and inquiries respecting the Princess of Wales, have been stopped, by and with the advice of the confidential servants of the crown. They had produced no discoveries injurious to the Princess; and no further attempts of the kind are to be made." The subject had been several times brought before parliament, but not in a shape which would warrant any decision. On the 31st March there was a desultory debate upon a motion of Mr. Whitbread to call upon Earl Moira for explanations of certain passages in a letter addressed by him to a member of the grand lodge of free-mason's, tending to inculcate the princess of Wales. Mr. W's motion was declared to be out of order, and the order of the day called for and carried. The Times of April 1st, speaking of the letter of the Earl of Moria, remarks: "There has existed a foul and sanguinary conspiracy, against the life and honour of the Princess of Wales; which has only been defeated by the good sense and humanity of the British nation."

The London Gazette, March 27, says—"The Prince Regent having expressed his wish to the Princess Charlotte that she should visit her mother, the young Princess accordingly dined yesterday at Montague House with the Princess of Wales."

A treaty, offensive and defensive, has been signed between the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia.

London, March 26.—A letter, of which the following are extracts, has this day been received at Earl Bathurst's office, addressed to his lordship, by Col. Hamilton, lieutenant governor of Heligoland, dated 23d March, 1813.

In my letter dated 18th inst. I had the honour to represent to your lordship that in consequence of the effect which the glorious success of the Russian arms had produced and the favourable reports from different parts of the Hanoverian coast, I determined immediately to take every step, which the inconsiderable force at my disposal would admit of, to promote the great and just cause.

Lieutenant Banks proceeded with two gun-brigs, reinforced by two serjeants and 30 veterans, to Cuxhaven, from which the French had departed with great expedition, after destroying all their gun-boats, and dismounting the guns from the strong works constructed for the defence of the harbour. On a summons from Lieutenant Banks, the castle of Rittzebuttel, and batteries of Cuxhaven were surrendered, to be at the disposal of his majesty, by the Burghers: and the British and Hamburg flags were immediately displayed.

Major Kentzinger, an officer perfectly qualified for such a mission, was sent to Cuxhaven, having received instructions to communicate as soon as possible with the Russian general, and the Senate of Hamburg; and this officer was immedi-

ately followed by a detachment from the 8th Royal veteran battalion and a supply of all the arms, &c. which were not actually employed by this garrison.

The loyal people of Hanover who have been so long oppressed, display every where the British colours, and G. R. upon their habitations; in the Weser, the inhabitants of that part of the country assembled in considerable numbers and took the strong and important battery and works at Bremerlee; and a corps of about 1500 French having assembled in its vicinity, which threatened to retake the battery, application was made immediately to Major Kentzinger for assistance, who having left Cuxhaven with a party of the soldiers in waggons, was met by these brave and grateful men, who gave him the pleasing intelligence, that the enemy had marched off in great haste, in consequence of the landing of the British troops, which were reported to amount to a considerable number.

Baron de Tottenborn colonel commandant of a corps of that division of the Russian army commanded by Count Wittgenstein, entered Hamburg on the 10th inst. amidst the acclamations and every demonstration of joy on the part of the citizens: in consequence of this happy event, the ancient government has been restored and a mail for England is now dispatched from that city.

St. Petersburg, Feb. 7.—Maj. Gen. Count Woronzow continues his march to Posen with his detachment, keeping open the communications on his right with Adjutant General Tschernischoff's detachment; and on his left, with the corps under Adjutant General Baron Winzingerode—Admiral Tschitchagoff's corps has invested the fortress of Thorn on all sides. General Miloradovitch's corps on the 5th of February crossed over to the left bank of the Vistula. Major General Paskevitch, with the 7th corps has taken possession of Sacroczin, and pushed posts of Cossacks for observation as far as Modlin, under the very guns of which they made 30 prisoners. On the 6th of February, General Miloradowitch, in order to induce the enemy to quit Warsaw, caused his troops to approach nearer to the place, and detached parties of cavalry, who surrounded a great part of it.

Feb. 8—Lieutenant General Sackeen's corps arrived at Opalin, near Warsaw, on the left bank of the Vistula.

On the 4th inst. the enemy wishing to procure provisions from the villages about Dantzic, made a sally on the left wing towards Brentau, but was immediately received by the Cossack regiment of Rebritow, and the 1st Basehair regiment under the command of Major Latchkin: who, after having very much weakened the enemy, and made some prisoners, notwithstanding his obstinate endeavours obliged him to retreat.

At the same time, a strong column of infantry, with a number of cavalry appeared on our left flank, opposite the passage of Nenkau, and at first drove in our advanced posts. A Cossack chief, named Mienhow, taking advantage of this movement, collected several detachments of Cossacks, rode upon the enemy's wing, and falling unexpectedly upon his rear, threw him into total confusion; the consequence was, that the whole column was cut off from the city, and not a single man returned into the fortress; 600 men were cut down on the spot, and 200 privates, and 73 officers, were made prisoners.

Adjutant-General Tschernichoff, with his detachment, has taken possession of the villages of Schochan, Friedland and Flatow. Our victorious troops were every where met by the inhabitants with joy, and acknowledged as their deliverers.—Prince Schwartzberg's corps was, by our motions, forced to retreat: and on the 8th of February, General Miloradowitsch, took possession of the city of Warsaw. On his arrival at the village of Wilanow he was met by the corpora-

tions of Nobility, Merchants and Clergy, headed by the Prefect, Sub-prefect and Mayors of the city, who presented to him bread, salt, and the keys of Warsaw.

Schwerin, March 7.—Yesterday evening we received the following information by an extraordinary opportunity from Berlin :

"The Russians entered Berlin on the 4th inst. at 6 o'clock in the morning ; The French having quitted that city at 1 o'clock. Only 1000 Russian infantry, under General Diebitch, remained at Berlin, and 7 or 8000 cavalry pushed through the city.

"The Viceroy has retreated through Saarmund towards Leipsic. Prince Repnio commanded the Russians, but delivered up the command at 4 o'clock in the afternoon to General Kutusoff, son of the Field-Marshal. The Russian Generals appeared in the evening at the Theatre, and were received with great applause."

A division of Russian troops, said to be under General Benkendorf's command takes its route through Mecklenburg. The Count Marshal Von Olofson was on the 6th inst. sent from hence with this information to Rostock.

General Winzingerode arrived at Corlitz, 8 German miles from Dresden, on the 28th Feb. On the 5th March an interview was to take place at Wittenberg between the Emperor Alexander and the King of Prussia.

Baymuth, Feb. 26.—A letter from Hamburg of the 21st inst. says, we are all here in the highest spirits possible. We have sung Te Deum for our deliverance—our youths are now enrolling themselves by hundreds in the Russian ranks. In Hanover the English cockade is hoisted every where.

London, Foreign Office, March 20.—His Royal Highness the Prince Regent has been pleased, in the name and on the behalf of his Majesty, to cause it to be signified by Viscount Castlereagh, his Majesty's principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, to the Ministers of friendly and neutral powers residing at this court, that the necessary measures have been taken, by the command of his Royal Highness, for the blockade of the ports and harbours of New-York, Charleston, Port Royal, Savannah, and of the Mississippi, in the United States of America ; and that, from this time, all the measures authorized by the law of nations will be adopted and executed with respect to all vessels which may attempt to violate the said blockade.

Paris, Thursday, 1st April, 1813.—The Senate met at 3 o'clock, under the presidency of his serene highness the prince arch chancellor of the empire.

In conformity to the orders of his majesty the emperor and king, the prince arch chancellor ordered to be transcribed on the registers of the senate, letters patent signed at the Elysian Palace, the 30th March last, and by which the emperor conferred on her majesty the empress and queen, Maria Louisa, the title of *Regent*.

In the Speech pronounced by the prince arch chancellor (Cambaceres) president of the senate, we find the following words :

"A report of the minister of exterior relations, will make known to you the change which has happened in our political relations, by the defection of one of the northern powers.

"This circumstance imposes on the nation the obligation of a great effort, of which the means will be found in the plans which will be submitted to your deliberation.

"At a moment of such high interest, the senate will see how essential it is to display the resources of France, to make the enemy feel the full weight of them, to convince him of the uselessness of his projects, and to reduce him finally to

desire sincerely that peace which the triumphant hand of the emperor has so frequently offered, but which can be worthy of his majesty only when it shall secure the repose of Europe, and the free commerce of all nations."

In the report of the minister of exterior relations to his majesty the emperor and king, we have the following:

"As long as your majesty was master of events, and you was so, as long as genius and courage could control them, Prussia remained faithful, and the Prussian troops did their duty; but when the French army experienced in its turn the chances of fortune, the cabinet of Berlin no longer held any measures. The defection of General York called the enemy into the states of the king of Prussia, and compelled our armies to evacuate the Vistula, and to proceed to the Oder.

"Prussia to disguise her intentions, offered to furnish a new contingency. She had in Silesia and on this side the Oder a sufficient number of troops already formed, and of cavalry which would have been so useful in opposing to the light troops of the enemy. But she had decided not to keep her promise.

"The king unexpectedly quitted Potsdam; he abandoned a residence in which he was covered by the Oder, to go into an open city, in order to hail the approach of the enemy. Hardly had he arrived at Breslaw, before General Bulow, who commanded some thousand men on the lower Oder, imitating the treason of General York, opened his lines to some light Russian troops and facilitated their passage of the Oder. Conducted by some new-raised Prussians these troops fought several battles at the gates of Berlin. The cabinet of Prussia now threw off the mask. The king, by three successive ordinances, called to arms, first the young men of the most respectable families, rich enough to equip and mount themselves; then the whole of the youth from 17 to 24 years, and at last all men above that age. It was an appeal made to passions which Prussia felt the necessity of restraining, when she desired your alliance, and while she was faithful to it. The chancellor of state ordered before him the leaders of these sectaries, who in their seditious fanaticism preached the overthrow of social order and the destruction of the throne. Prussian officers were sent in pomp to the Russian head-quarters; numerous Russian agents succeeded each other at Breslaw. Finally the 1st of March, Prussia finished by a treaty with Russia what Gen. York had begun.

"It was on the 17th March at Breslaw, and the 27th at Paris, that the ministers of the King of Prussia announced officially that their master had made common cause with the enemy.

"Thus Prussia has declared war against your majesty, as the price of the treaty of Tilsit, which replaced the king on his throne, and of the treaty of Paris, which had admitted him into the alliance."

The Count Defermont calls upon the senate to adopt plans for the military establishment, by which they "will have an army of 400,000 on the Elbe, one of 200,000 in Spain, and 200,000 men as well on the Rhine, as in the 32d military division, and in Italy."

Erratum in our last.—P. 50, line 8, for "*Oswald has a son named Wilfrid. In our estimation he is drawn,*" &c. read, "*Oswald is drawn, in our estimation, with more propriety and truth, &c. He has a son named Wilfrid.*"



The Hon.

OLIVER ELSWORTH Esq^r.

